

The Manitoba School

A Magazine for Classroom Service

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The Manitoba School

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Vol. 1

September, 1930

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EDITORIAL

HERE AGAIN

How the last two months have slipped away. It seems only a few days since we waved that last year's family of ours off to their Summer vacation. How joyfully they carried away their armfuls of texts and scribblers. How glad we were to lock the schoolhouse door, pack the suitcase, and exchange at the depot window an appreciable percentage of our last month's cheque for a little cardboard ticket. Glad though we were to begin the holidays, we are back at the desk and the chalk-box as enthusiastic as ever. Many of us have returned to the same old schools; others are now studying the personalities of a new group. Probably the zest with which we are beginning the year's work is a fair measure of our personal interest in the art of teaching.

A Happy Summer

We have had a rest. We will not be so easily worried by the thousand-and-one foolish questions which must be answered weekly. The Summer spent on the farm, in the city, at the lake, at the exhibition, or at the Summer School, has been rich in experiences which will color the work of the next ten months. The change of environment and the social contacts of the Summer have helped to preserve our mental health. We have seen another bit of life which we will help the children interpret.

The Prospect Immediately Before Us

The pupils have had a wonderful time. It will take weeks of essay and letter writing to tell all of it. New class groups, new readers, and probably a new teacher are ushering in the year. Interest is alive and one of our big problems is to nurture it. If we succeed in keeping enthusiasm alive, the year's success is assured. Interested children are themselves interesting. All children are naturally active and attentive. If we can keep them interested in school tasks we know that learning will be rapid and that there will be

no problem of discipline with which to conjure. We are told that a weed is a flower out of place. Similarly, inattention is merely misplaced attention. Children will attend to something all the time. As teachers we are not required to supply this ability; Nature has done that. Ours is the simpler task of controlling what shall be attended to. Just as the well-designed advertisement controls our attention and directs it in predetermined manner from point to point on the page, so a good explanation or a well-planned assignment holds and directs the course of attention. Practice in attention of this sort results in the ability to concentrate attention. What of discipline? Really, there should be no such problem. The well-disciplined room is not the quiet one, but the one in which pupils work naturally, having consideration of the needs of others in the group. An entire class of pupils cannot work enthusiastically and be quiet as wooden men.

Be Sympathetic and Interested

It is essential that we come to the year's work also with a real interest in each individual pupil. Children are apt in interpreting our behavior. If each child feels that we are interested in him because our interest is reflected in everything we do, he in turn will be our supporter. There will be good teamwork. His difficulties will have our courteous consideration, and our mistakes will be overlooked by him. Few serious disciplinary problems can arise in the classroom that is in charge of a sympathetic, interested teacher.

What You May Expect

As we call the roll these first few days, let us recall that in this little ungraded room there are many pupil types. The individual peculiarities we will discover gradually as the year rolls by, but certain shrewd guesses may be made now. Looking down the list of primary children, we see the names of Mary, John, Metro, and Olga. We may expect that, after becoming acquainted, these tots will be rather socially inclined. They will be very anxious to please us. A word of praise now and then will cause smiles to stretch across these little faces. To them we will be faultless. Written exercises will be done in expectation of favorable comments. These primary children are naturally interested in persons and we will utilize this interest to make as painless as possible the laborious task of learning the language symbols used in reading, writing, spelling and arithmetic.

A Little Applied Psychology

In the intermediate grades are Bob, Lucy, and Peter. If we have had much experience with boys and girls in the early 'teens, we will expect less-favored treatment here. There is naturally more independence. These pupils are less imitative and they are not so eager to co-operate and

please. A desire to learn more about the material things of the out-of-doors is responsible for an interest in supplementary reading, in manual activities, in camp life and in adventure. The prescribed drill work of the intermediate grades will not prove absorbingly interesting unless the problem of motivation is studied. We must not be too quick to interpret, and probably misinterpret, many of the responses and doings of this group.

The Older Pupils

In the senior elementary grades the children will be normally less independent and less troublesome. These pupils have many ideas and developing ideals. It will be profitable to recognize these. More socially inclined, these boys and girls will be greatly influenced by the personality of the teacher. They will be glad to accept responsibilities and we should take advantage of their willingness.

June Examinations

I almost forgot that we must begin right now to get ready for the examinations next Summer. What a pity we cannot forget about the horrid examinations. Probably there must be tests at the end of each unit of work. Probably, too, the best teaching, the teaching that stresses the immeasurables gives the measurables as a by-product. Experience has taught us that regular, well-planned, thoughtful, daily work secures results that show their worth in the light of the dreaded examinations. We are not teaching subject-matter, we are teaching children. We are not working in the hope that pages of foolscap may be well filled with ciphers and words at the end of the year. We are interested in making changes in pupils, in changing human nature, and in directing the growth of as many personalities as there are names on the class roll.

The Ghost That Walks

Just one week since we started. Let's take tonight off and make a time-table, for the Inspector may be along tomorrow.

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BOOK REVIEW

"THE ENGLISH TRADITION OF EDUCATION."

Cyril Norwood, M.A., D.Lit. (John Murray, Albemarle St. W., London, 1929, viii, 340 p.)

* * *

The three parts of this book are headed: Ideals, The Schools as They Are, and Things that Might Be.

IDEALS

The author begins with the thesis that we have a great national tradition of education and that we are in danger of neglecting it, of permitting its structure to be impaired and its foundations to be shaken. The future welfare of democracy, future international social relations, and the future welfare of undeveloped races depend upon the preservation of those basic elements in education.

Since the Middle Ages, the fundamental ideals of the formation of character and of the duty of service have characterized English education. The ideal of chivalry has never been lost. The tradition of English education is based upon religion. "It relies largely upon games and open-air prowess, where these involve corporate effort"; it has developed an intellectual appeal on many sides; it has no longer any fear of art, or music, or even the drama.

"The first and the most important element in the ideal of a great school, that which is the foundation for all the rest, is religion." Only the simplest doctrinal teaching should be attempted. One must not be over-eager to see visible results of religious instruction. The results become manifest in the general tone of the school. Character is not a thing that can be taught. It is not a matter of right teaching, but of right living. "For the boy the way to the higher life is in nearly all cases opened by personal inspiration. It may not come direct; it may seem only accidental; but it is some deed, some chance word, it may be, as well as the force of an example intimately known, that lights the fire in another heart."

"The English tradition has discipline at its centre and definitely relies upon it." Orders should be reasonable but they should be obeyed, not criticized. Corporal punishment must be employed in the case of boys who are idlers or rule-breakers, of those who have cheated, and of those who are bullies. "The rule of discipline, then, is that you must do your duty, or pay the penalty; authority comes

from above, but all share in delegated powers for the purpose of living a common life." Training gives real freedom; the boy is taught to choose what he ought to choose.

The training of the school results in culture. Pupils think of knowledge as intrinsically valuable, the only thing worth having. True education should preserve mental alertness and curiosity.

It is not the business of the school to make boys into electrical engineers, accountants, butchers and bakers; it is its business to train the mind, give a liberal education, and fit the boy for life whatever his course is going to be.

Athletics is stressed in the English tradition. The term means something that produces both bodily fitness and the right type of character. Team spirit is an essential in the process. "A game is to be played for the game's sake." It matters not who wins so long as both sides play their best. No unfair advantage can ever be taken. Within the rules no mercy is to be expected, or accepted or shown by either side. The individual player must learn to sacrifice self that he may render his best service to the team. The ideal of service leads the boy to feel that he is nothing apart from the community of which he is a member, to realize that he has some gift of his own that must be developed and used for the common good.

THE SCHOOLS AS THEY ARE

In this part of the book it is argued that the schools are losing their independence, that the examination system is mechanizing the process of education, that schools now fostering the English tradition are misunderstood and misinterpreted as educating a special class, and that there is at present too much stress on individualism. Too little attention to the inherited experience of the past is to be deplored. Private judgment cannot always take precedence over instilled beliefs. "It is better to teach the child not to seek the self-realization of the individual self, but to live as a member of a community, to be loyal to its laws, to seek to remove its injustices and its imperfections, and to deserve well of his fellow-men."

THINGS THAT MIGHT BE

Equality of opportunity can never mean equality of performance. The schools of the future may recognize this more fully and train pupils for infinite types of service. The great importance of primary education will be more adequately understood. Experimentation in education will increase. More responsibility will be given the individual teacher.

The hope of world peace rests upon an education that

is not directed to this specific end, but founded on practical Christianity, culture, and character.

Dr. Norwood has written a very readable book. One feels that he has convictions backed up with long experience. The book is full of opinions without evidence. The reader can detect a few points where the writer has brought one side of the argument to the fore.

"INFANCY AND HUMAN GROWTH."

By Arnold Gesell, (New York, Macmillan, 1929, xvii, 418 pages; plates, charts).

* * *

This is one of the best available books on child psychology, presenting much evidence that there is an innate growth tendency determining the tempo of development. Studies of the mental growth of both postmature and premature infants strengthen the suggestion that inherent maturational factors set this tempo.

The data are scientifically obtained, and the experimental technique followed is clearly detailed. One places confidence in the data because it relates to a very natural environment. By observation and comparison of children of various age levels and types, norms of attainment in language, in motor development, in adaptive behavior, and in personal-social activities were deduced.

A few of the more important suggestions and tentative conclusions are:

- (a) Mental growth is determined chiefly by the age factor.
- (b) Glandular and nutritional factors are very important in determining mental growth.
- (c) Mental defects may be detected and diagnosed at an early age.
- (d) Environment controls the conditions and alters the rate of growth but each infant has his own basic inherited rate.

The book is a source of norms for the student of individual infants.

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CURRENT TENDENCIES IN THE SELECTION OF CONTENT AND IN THE METHODOLOGY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL SUBJECTS

Editor's Note: In this section there will appear monthly throughout the year articles dealing with specific subjects taught in the secondary schools. Present tendencies in various countries will be summarized and discussed. This month's article is introductory; it does not deal with a particular subject. It gives a background to which future discussions will relate.

* * *

Curricula are always undergoing change, and generally the change comes slowly. A faith in the efficacy of past subject-matter, the opposition of vested interests, scepticism concerning the new and untried, and a latent laziness that prevents established teachers from venturing into new fields of thought, combine to make the phrase "current tendencies" ever applicable. The word "tendencies" tells us also that decisions have not been final; there is variety, but there is a general trend to current practice.

The term "secondary school" has a quite different meaning today from what it had a few decades ago. Formerly it meant the school period between elementary school and university which was entered after the elementary school grades were completed. In many instances the elementary training ended at age fourteen or fifteen. The majority of pupils had left school before this age and few of the pupils who entered Grade I ever entered the secondary school. Those who passed on to the high school prepared themselves for entrance to the university, where certain selected professional courses were given. The secondary school curriculum was rather definitely fixed in content by the nature of the university work for which the pupils were preparing. The high school accepted this preparatory function as legitimate. It is interesting to note that while today, as we will indicate later, we think we have accepted other main functions for the secondary school, the conservatism of the system is such that the majority of the subjects taught in the high school here today relate more to preparatory work than they do to the real needs of the boys and girls who study them.

Changes Are Necessary

The society served by our schools today is a rapidly changing one. Conditions are not as stable as they were when high school courses were first designed. In the professions, there was less experimentation and research than

there is today, and the same subject-matter could be taught indefinitely. In all lines of work there has come about a change. The use of machinery in all industries, from the most complicated down to farming, has changed the needs of the average adult. Processes are becoming mechanized. More science and mathematics are needed by certain workers. Work is becoming more monotonous and the worker should have insight into purposes that lie behind processes if he is to save himself from boredom, and if he is to work intelligently for his employer. We are educating for a changing civilization in which the relation of the worker to his work is changing rapidly. The total amount of leisure is increasing. Pupils must be so trained that this leisure time will be used profitably. Population is gravitating into larger and larger centres and social relationships are changing. Woman's relation to business and professional life has altered greatly during the last twenty years. There will continue to be a specialization of duties in each activity in which large numbers of women become engaged. Home life in urban centres is becoming less and less a family group affair. Training that was formerly given in the home is today being given in the school. Health training, religious education, music instruction, training in the use of tools and practice in household science are examples of responsibilities which the school is now assuming. These changes are altering or should alter school curricula. Secondary school instruction should in some manner reflect these changes that are taking place so rapidly in the adult life.

The High School Population Has Changed

The nature of the secondary school population is changing also. Originally high school courses of study were designed for few students. The number of graduates from professional courses that could be absorbed was rather limited. A high school education was not considered necessary for persons outside the professions. The idea of free, popular education has spread until now the slogan is becoming "A high school education for every child." Higher standards of living, a more scientific spirit directing many activities, the force of precedent, increased leisure, and desire for social prestige are probably all factors in causing the present increase in the high school population. It is a fact that we have a large number of children asking for admission to the secondary schools today. Parents send their children in the blind hope that, after examinations are passed, some good will result. Courses are not being selected because pupils have special interests that are catered to, nor because they have special needs that are cared for by the courses chosen.

As the total number in the high school increases, the general level of intelligence and of industry decreases. When

large numbers are drifting through the secondary school grades, motivation is lacking. General intelligence as rated by the school is largely a capacity for acquiring the skills and information given in the classroom. With this new and larger population the average intelligence quotient is lower and the incompetence quotient higher than was the case when the school population was more selected. These changes in the nature of the student body have the following results: (a) the traditional content is not interesting to the majority of the students who, in the main, are not interested in knowledge for its own sake; (b) if prescribed courses are to be completed, they must be made easier; (c) the school must offer a larger number of courses to meet the wider range of individual differences; and (d) a keen interest in school subjects being lacking, a wide range of extra-curricular subjects is offered in the hope that these appendages to the programme may keep the students interested in school work.

Changing Educational Theories

A third cause of change is the modification of educational theories. Of first importance here is the question of transfer of training. Unqualified transfer was assumed under the old curriculum. When educational psychologists made their first pronouncement against transfer, their findings were generalized too freely, with the result that no transfer values were credited to any subject except when it contained elements identical with those where transfer was under consideration. The doctrine of specific abilities became the fashion. One result of this changed interpretation of theory was an increased freedom for the pupil in the choice of subjects to be studied. One subject being assumed as effective as any other for purposes of general training, it was immaterial which was studied by any pupil. Another result was an increase of subjects included in the course of studies. The increased recognition of the extent of individual differences in capacities together with the desire for a greater number of electives were two factors resulting in a more comprehensive curriculum.

Educational theory underwent a change also in its reference to the mental development of children. The belief that rather abrupt changes in the psychological development of children took place at the time of adolescence was paralleled by reliance in a course of studies that separated elementary school subjects rather sharply from those of the secondary school. In the old regime the study of algebra, geometry, and French, for example, was begun after entering high school, whereas today these subjects have dropped down into the elementary grades. Today it is agreed that there is a gradual development of children in most respects and that growth is con-

tinuous in most mental functions. Children are able to deal with the abstractions of mathematics at almost any age after entering the elementary school. The difficulty of the abstractions that may be understood increases from age-level to age-level, and the type of application which will be recognized varies with increasing age, but growth in reasoning power is a continuum. This understanding of child psychology has resulted in a new distribution of subject-matter. Subjects formerly studied by only high school pupils are now studied by pupils in the elementary grades.

Educating the Adolescent

It was noted above that the high school period was originally one of preparation for professional courses. The high school was in part an eliminating machine. Examinations were barriers over which the candidate must leap before passing on to senior work. In Grades VII and VIII of the elementary school, pupils who did not plan advanced study were held on drill work until they were old enough to drop out of school.

A newer conception of secondary education gradually developed. It may be summarized by saying that secondary education is for the adolescent. The psychological nature of children was made the basis of the new classification. Children enter adolescence at varying ages, but, in general, the period begins about age twelve or thirteen. To begin high school studies at this age necessitated two changes. The elementary school course was telescoped into six years. Much of the drill work of Grades VII and VIII was eliminated and new subject-matter was introduced at this point. It was argued that adolescent children are alike socially and that they should be grouped together, separate from the pupils of the elementary grades. Here originated the junior high school. In its beginning it was not governed by any clear-cut policy other than that of this plan of age grouping. Junior high schools came into existence throughout the United States, but there was no uniformity in the types of curricula to be found in them. In certain of these schools were to be found pupils of Grades VII and VIII only; in others there were pupils of Grades VII, VIII and IX. After much experimentation and fumbling, the six years that were to be given to secondary education were divided into two periods of three years each, the first forming the junior and the second the senior high school period. In the junior period, an attempt was made to have the child explore various lines of work and make a temporary choice of the line of specialization he might follow. In the senior period emphasis was placed upon training in the field thus chosen. In many centres children are taken into the junior high school upon the basis of age only and the school tries to explore the possibilities while bridging the gap between the

elementary and the senior high school. In Bulletin No. 35, 1918, "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Washington, one may read, "In the junior high school there should be the gradual introduction of departmental teaching, some choice of subjects under guidance, prevocational courses, and a social organization that calls forth initiative and develops the sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of the group. In the senior high school a definite curriculum organization should be provided by means of which each pupil may take work systematically planned with reference to his needs as an individual and as a member of society. The senior high school should be characterized by a rapidly developing social consciousness and by an aptitude of self-reliance based upon clearly perceived objectives."

While the above reference describes the situation, it may be said that it is not characteristic of our own schools. A few comments are relative to this remark. One agrees that the system of classification has not yet entirely proved its worth. It must be admitted that it aims to give the maximum of educational service to each adolescent pupil. Do we do more? We cannot praise wholeheartedly a system that features examinations so strongly that conscientious teachers get such a biased viewpoint that they exclude from their courses all pupils who appear to have but slight chance of passing the Departmental examinations. This appears to be operating the school for the sake of the teacher's prestige rather than for the education of the child. Probably we have not yet grasped the full magnitude of our high school problem. Enrolments are increasing and we are filling the high schools, rightly or wrongly, with pupils who derive little profit from the study of the subjects now prescribed for them. England is now in the midst of a reorganization that attempts to provide more adequately for the adolescent children.

It is only fair to add that there are many who have an entirely different conception of the functions of the secondary school. In the first place they would never agree that all pupils can derive profit from a secondary school education. These persons think in terms of a select high school population, select in the matter of intelligence, interest and industry. These persons would advocate a high school education "for those who can profit by it." The fact that there is disagreement enters into the discussion of who should be educated. It enters also into the question of what the purpose of secondary education is.

Aims of Secondary Education

Discussions of aims of education are always very theoretical. Probably there are many unrecorded aims that

take precedence in actual practice over the recorded ones. The former give the aims of parents and pupils; the latter those of the designers of courses of study. The educator may overlook the pupil's aims and arrange a course of study that meets his needs very inadequately.

If one reads through the list of aims generally given, and then studies the curriculum prescribed, he concludes that in most instances the course is written without reference to the aims and then the aims are put in the foreword. As a matter of fact most of us who are teaching are not very conscious of the ultimate aims governing our instruction. We see the immediate aims, rather than the remote. The plodding teacher who gives little thought to the business of education works with examinations and memorization of subject-matter as the goal, thinking little about the final purpose or worthwhileness of it all. Certain misinformed persons think that secondary education should give pupils training for specific jobs. Finally there are educators who believe that the purpose of secondary education is to inform the child concerning the progress of our civilization, to lead him to appreciate the great human values and the price at which they have been bought, and to instill in him a respect if not a liking for learning for learning's sake.

The reader can imagine the types of course that the two latter groups would select. The former would argue for vocational courses, the latter for cultural courses. The former would contend that any subject has, or may be given, cultural values and that therefore the useful subjects should be stressed. The other group replies that there are certain subjects which take precedence over others in their usefulness as tools in working for cultural values.

The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the National Education Association reported in 1918 the following to be the main objectives in secondary education: (1) health, (2) command of the fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocational training, (5) civic education, (6) training for the correct use of leisure, and (7) the development of ethical character. Writers on the curriculum from Spencer's time on have given us lists of aims that differ but little from this one.

One begins to realize how much the educational values must come as by-products of our formal instruction when a subject such as trigonometry, for example, is judged according to the standards set down above. Trigonometry has little to do with conserving the health of any individual pupil. Home membership is benefited but little by the subject. It adds little to civic training. It is used in a vocational way by a relatively small number of adults. For very

few students does it open another avenue of recreation and interest for leisure hours. Evidently the direct values do not tell the entire story.

The relation of the aims given above to the necessary content of a high school course of studies may be readily inferred from a quotation from the report of the commission referred to above. "No curriculum in the secondary school can be regarded as satisfactory unless it gives due attention to each of the objectives outlined herein. Health, as an objective, makes imperative an adequate time assignment for physical training and requires science courses properly focused upon personal and community hygiene, the principles of sanitation, and their applications. Command of fundamental processes necessitates thorough courses in the English language as a means of taking in and giving forth ideas. Worthy home membership calls for the redirection of much of the work in literature, art and the social studies. For girls it necessitates adequate courses in household arts. Citizenship demands that the social studies be given a prominent place. Vocation as an objective requires that many pupils devote much of their time to specific preparation for a definite trade or occupation, and that some pursue studies that serve as a basis for advanced work in higher institutions. The worthy use of leisure calls for courses in literature, art, music, and science so taught as to develop appreciation. It necessitates also a margin of free electives to be chosen on the basis of personal avocational interests."

The above remarks on new needs in secondary education, on the changed nature of the high school population, on the education of the adolescent, and on the aims of secondary education have been given, not because our own course of studies recognizes them fully, nor because we are in full agreement with the ideas expressed, but because we should have these facts in mind when we turn later to discuss present tendencies in the teaching of the various subjects. It is a fact that in the literature pertaining to the methodology of the high school subjects many of these factors have their influence.

Next month we will continue with a summary of present trends in the teaching of general science.

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ARITHMETIC

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GRADE I

During September much time will be consumed in establishing a satisfactory routine for the entire class work. It is of first importance that the oral language be socialized. The pupils must become acquainted with the teacher; they must become accustomed to her voice and language forms, and they must learn to work as a group, carrying out new instructions in novel ways. All this means that arithmetic will not be stressed during the first few days. This outline for September will not prescribe subject-matter as definitely as will later monthly assignments.

The work during the first few months will be quite informal. Probably the entire year's work should be informal, but our course is prescribed and we have a definite body of subject-matter to teach. Those who follow these outlines need not worry during the early part of the year lest the entire prescribed content should not be completed by the year. There will be plenty of drill after the preliminary exercises are finished.

To orientate our thinking concerning the work ahead, it should be noted that there will be a unifying thread running through the Grade I arithmetic. An effort will be made to introduce the decimal system gradually and informally. No explanation of the system will be given any pupil at any time, but a basis will be laid for later work.

We will not be in too great a hurry to have the child memorize number facts. There will be thorough drill of course, but, this drill will be preceded by exercises that give understanding of a few basic notions.

Child's Knowledge When Entering Grade I

The ordinary pupil entering Grade I knows much more about non-quantitative language than he does about the quantitative. He has had five or six years of practice in hearing and using English, but little of the language has had any number ideas buried in it. The work preparatory to reading has been done, but the child is not ready to begin arithmetic. Most children can recite the first number names when they enter school. They can say, "One, two, etc." They may have grasped the fact that the word four comes after the word three in this rhyme, but they have little mental content for either the three or the four. Before the teacher begins reading, the child knows the oral words, "tree," "boy," "red," etc., and what is more important, he

has a wealth of associations for each of these words. He is given the printed or written word, the symbol, and by repetition he associates this arbitrary symbol with its meaning. The danger in arithmetic is that the oral name word may become associated with the printed symbol before meaning has been attached to the oral word. If this happens, the child will juggle symbols without being bothered with meanings. One general principle to guide us during the first few weeks is as follows: **Associate the oral number name with its meaning and do this in as many ways as possible.**

One might teach effectively without introducing the printed symbols until late in the year. It is also possible, though with certain dangers, to introduce the printed symbol, the oral name and the meaning all at the same time. This latter course will be followed because it makes it relatively easy to provide seatwork for the children in ungraded rooms. Each time the printed symbol is given, associate it with its meaning.

Ways of Associating Name and Symbol With Meaning

1. Write '2' on the blackboard, call it 'two', and ring the handbell twice.
2. Have children close eyes. Clap hands once or twice. Children will tell how many sounds are heard.
3. Have a small group of pupils stand before the class. The pupils will count the number in the group. The number name and symbol will be associated.
4. Use foot rule for drawing lines on the blackboard. Do not draw lines over five feet in length.
5. Use inch ruler for drawing lines on scribblers. Use cardboard rulers that have only the inch divisions marked along the scale.
6. Ask children to pick up a designated number of pegs from the desk. Keep the group of pegs small so that the pupil may see the group sometimes without waiting to count the separate pegs.
7. Use domino blocks or cardboard strips carrying domino pictures. Train the children in rapid perception of the small groups. Grade I children will recognize after practice as many as four ungrouped objects. Concentrate the early practice on the groups, one, two, three and four.
8. Pupils may arrange pegs on the desk as follows:

I
II
III
III
III
II
I

Pointing to the rows in mixed order, they may name the number of pegs in each row.

9. Pupil may walk a designated number of steps.
10. The digit '3' may be written on the blackboard, and one pupil may be asked to walk the required number of steps.
11. Pupils may be given a sheet of paper upon which is written:

1	
2	
3	
4	
3	
2	
1	

1	
4	
2	
3	
1	
3	
2	
4	

As a number is called, the appropriate number of strokes, crosses, etc., may be recorded in the right hand column.

12. From a sandbox, sand to the amount of one, two, three, four or five cupfuls may be put by the pupil into various cans. The pupil will compare various cans and try to name the number of cupfuls in each. Care should be taken in this early measurement to ensure that a cupful is exactly a cupful. If pupils are allowed to describe a partially filled cup as a cupful, habits of carelessness and inaccuracy will be promptly formed.
13. Flashcards with a number of pictures or diagrams may be exposed and the children asked to name the number on each. The aim should be to have the group named without first having the series counted.
14. Have pupil put his hand into the chalk-box or bean bag and draw out a designated number of objects. Appeal to the sense of touch rather than vision.
15. Draw unmeasured lines on the blackboard and ask pupils to estimate their length. After the estimate is made, have each line measured. Results may be given in the form, "More than two and less than three feet."
16. Individual bead frames may be constructed on a single wire or thread. A fifteen cent bead frame will give beads enough for a dozen small frames. If beads are not available improvise other material. Five blue and five red beads on the wire are sufficient. A number, as 4, written on the blackboard should tell the pupils to move over the group four at once without counting. The four position will generally be remembered as one less than five. When the exercise is completed each time, the pupil replies to the effect that he has put over the four beads.
17. The pupil may stand with his back to the wall and walk away from it any required number of steps. Take five as the upper number limit in this early work. As the

pupil steps out from the wall indicate each position by a chalk mark. Do not write the number symbols on the line. As the child walks along the path marked, the following questions and others of their kind may be asked:

1. When at 'One'. From where is the one measured? (Keep the language simple).
2. When at 'Two' repeat as above. Some pupils will reply that they are two steps from position one, etc.
3. When at 'Three'. How far are you from 'Two'? How many steps is it from three to five? Which is more, five steps or three steps? How many more? Three now from where?
4. When at 'Four'. Turn about. Take another step. Having arrived at position 'Three' some pupils call it five. Use this device for teaching the series from one to five.

Ask pupils to count out from the wall: One, two, three, four, five.

Ask them to count back: Five, four, three, two, one. Vary the questions as desired.

Ask pupils to stand back from the path as marked. Call a number position and have a pupil run to this position. Call a second, a third, etc. When all positions are filled, pupils in succession may call their position names: One, two, three, four, five, four, three, two, one.

Early Language Work

It is frequently forgotten that there is a language of arithmetic just as there is a technical vocabulary in any other subject. One of the main functions of Grade I arithmetic is to develop this language. Arithmetic does not consist in the mere memorization of many number facts. It is essential that the pupil be trained to think quantitatively. The pupil must have a framework for his thinking. He must know the language. As examples of concepts and language to be made clear, the following are given:

1. Which is the longer of two lines? Which is the shorter? Are the two lines equal in length?
2. Which is the greater? Which is the less?
3. Which of these two boys is the taller? Which is the shorter? Which of the three is the tallest? Which is the shortest?
4. Other words: higher, lower, smaller, larger, heavier, near, nearer, foot, inch, how far, how much greater, more than, less than, wide, long, length, width, etc.

Measurement

Any measurement that is introduced in these early weeks is merely an application of counting or a means of

recognizing groups. The unit divisions are marked and the pupils are not introduced to continuous quantity which presents its own difficulties. The technique of measurement may be learned toward the latter part of the month but this will involve only the marking off of given unit lengths.

Interest

It is essential that interest be not killed. Pupils enjoy variety. It is true that every time a new device is introduced, there is delay and trouble for the pupils. Learning however is always accompanied by trouble. From many devices and applications the pupils abstract the essential which is something more than the device. Pupils will not memorize facts rapidly when procedures are being varied, but they will acquire widened and enriched experience. Pupils in the higher grades cannot think quantitatively because they have been thinking too long in grooves. We must not flit from device to device without method in our choice, but whenever a new device is needed and it will serve a useful purpose do not hesitate to use it.

Do not ask the child to perform exercises in the manipulation of numbers as such during the first month.

The Number System

When dealing with these small numbers there are few comments to be made concerning the number system. The pupils should not be told that the base of the system is ten, but, if a bead frame of any sort is presented to them, there should be ten beads to the line and not twelve or some other number. The group ten will gradually appear to them to be a natural group to use in thinking about large numbers. Whenever it fits naturally into the counting exercises suggest the ten idea, but keep it out of the formal instruction. Use the ten, the twenty, the thirty, etc., as natural stopping points in the number system, but make no comments concerning your procedure.

Number Sense

While we agree that children differ in their natural abilities and in their special capacities, we have no evidence that children inherit what is sometimes called a number sense. Children learn to think quantitatively by having practice in that type of thinking. The more closely the thinking activities are associated with doing activities, the more rapid will be the learning.

It is not intended that special exercises be designed to exemplify the various phases of the number idea detailed below, but, the teacher will have the facts in mind and will use chance opportunities to introduce elementary questions and exercises that gradually develop the complete idea. Before number ideas are generalized, they must fit situa-

tions where any of the following notions are intended: (a) the series idea, (b) the group idea, (c) the ratio idea involved in measurement, and (d) the relational idea involved in the common number facts and tables.

Oral Problems

Oral problems do not involve necessarily number facts dependent upon memorized number combinations or separations. Many problems are mainly language problems even in the higher grades. One very important element in all problem-solving is that of finding the problem. The ability to find problems presented in verbal form results from practice in analysis. The rudiments of any ability are relatively simple. The easy oral problems that a pupil may solve during the first weeks of school life give the basic training needed. When the time comes that pupils will be asked to solve difficult problems, they must show facility in detecting relationships among the various parts of the problem. The elementary comparisons will be made when solving the very easy problems suited to Grade I.

Following are a few problems illustrative of those that may be asked at the beginning:

1. Which is more, five apples or three apples?
2. Which of these two books is the larger?
3. Here are two sticks. How may you find which is the longer?
4. Which is longer the window ledge or the desk? If you are in doubt, how may you be certain? (Comparison with a third length intended here, not measurement.)
5. How old are you now? How old were you last year? How old will you be next year?
6. An orange costs five cents. I have three cents. Have I enough money to buy the orange?
7. Are there more boys than girls in our class?

Although it was stated above that the work should remain informal, the following outline is suggested as a guide:

First week—Language work. Counting objects. Oral problems.

Second week—Counting series of sounds. Oral problems.

Third week—Counting forward and backward from one to five. The number scale on the floor from one to five. Oral problems.

Fourth week—Drawing lines. Comparing length of lines. Unit repeated in measurement. Oral problems.

SILENT READING

D. J. Dickie, Ph.D.

WHY SILENT READING?

The past twenty-five years have brought about a radical change in the status of reading. Compulsory education has reduced illiteracy to comparatively small proportions. We have a generation of adults practically all of whom can read.

The tremendous increase of advertising; the vogue of the silent movie; the universal use of the motor car with its attendant signs, rules, road maps, and travel literature; the advent of the correspondence school; the multiplication of trade journals, these and other elements of modern life have, for the first time in history, produced a generation which **does** read. Reading was the occupation of a leisure hour; it has become an integral part of the business of living. It is nearly impossible to live in the modern world without reading.

A Change in the Kind of Reading Done

The need to read, and to read a good deal, has brought about a change in the kind of reading done. In the old days, when readers were comparatively rare and books comparatively few, much of the reading done was oral. It was the custom for one member of the family or group to read aloud while the others worked. The need for this pleasant exercise has vanished and it is now seldom practised. Books are plentiful, everyone reads.

Modern Reading Is Silent

Modern reading is silent because the modern world has a great deal of reading to do, and silent reading is both quicker and more effective than oral reading. The purpose of silent reading is to grasp the facts presented in the matter being read as fully, as accurately, and after that, as rapidly as possible. Completeness of comprehension, accuracy, and rapidity are, therefore, the three qualities by which the effectiveness of reading is to be judged. Silent reading is more effective than oral reading, that is we gather more facts from silent than we do from oral reading, and we get them more accurately. The investigations which have been made prove this to be the case for both adults and children.

1. Choose any passage of easy informational material. Read twenty lines aloud. Jot down all the facts you can remember.

2. Read twenty lines silently. Jot down all the facts you can remember. Compare the numbers.
3. Read a chapter in a novel aloud. Jot down the facts you can recall.
4. Read a chapter of equal length and difficulty silently, and compare the number of facts you can recall.
5. Read a passage of difficult informational material aloud. Note the facts recalled. Compare it with the original and note the number of errors or omissions.
6. Read an equally difficult passage silently. Note all the facts you can recall. Compare it with the original and note the number of errors and omissions.
7. Try each of these tests with one of your intermediate or senior grade classes.

Silent Reading More Rapid Than Oral Reading

Silent reading is also more rapid than oral reading. The studies made show that both children and adults read from two to four words more per second when reading silently.

1. Time yourself while reading. Count the number of words you read in a minute, when reading silently, when reading aloud.
2. Test your classes. Find out how many words per minute they read orally and how many silently.
3. Find out whether the good or poor readers differ most in their rates.
4. If you find intermediate or senior grade pupils who read aloud and silently at the same rate, what conclusion would you draw as to their silent reading rate?

The Modern Adult Does Not Read Aloud

The modern adult spends almost none of his reading time in reading aloud. One investigation reports only one person out of one hundred and thirty-seven questioned who stated that he read aloud very frequently. Psychologists are actually discussing the possibility of the elimination of oral reading altogether from the schools. Most of them hold, however, and most teachers will agree with them, that this is not likely to happen. Oral reading has its values. It is a useful check in beginning reading. It is one of the best methods of training the voice and improving the speech. It has important social values in the senior grades, but it is no longer the common type of reading. Training children to read aloud is no longer a satisfactory preparation for the reading they will have to do throughout life.

1. For any single, average day of your life count up the amount of time spent in oral reading. As you are a teacher your oral reading time will be very much larger than that of other persons.

2. For a single, average day count up the amount of time spent in silent reading. As far as possible include all the minutes and half minutes used in reading signs, directions, etc.

3. Choose an educated adult who is not a teacher, and whom you know with sufficient intimacy. Find out his or her oral reading time for one week.

4. Find out his silent reading time for one week.

5. Note the oral reading time per day of the pupils in your Grade V class.

6. Estimate the average number of minutes which each of your Grade V pupils spends in silent reading per day. Compare their oral and their silent reading time.

7. Make the same comparison of oral and silent reading time for your Grade III class.

8. Make it for your Grade VIII.

9. With these facts in mind, what do you consider to be a fair proportion of time to assign (a) to oral reading; (b) to silent reading in the primary, intermediate, and senior divisions of the school?

10. Considering the vastly greater need to read silently which will meet your pupils in adult life, are you giving them a fair proportion of training in silent reading?

Scoring Progress

If the teacher is, as she may well be, too busy to make these calculations herself, the children usually enjoy making them for themselves. Arrange a score board on the blackboard, or on a chart, for the class which is estimating its reading time. Divide the board into space for oral and silent reading. For one, or more days, have each pupil enter his respective reading times. At the end of the time sum up and find the average time per pupil.

COMPOSITION AND LANGUAGE

A. J. Watson, B.A.

GRADE III

All written exercises in Grade III are composition and language work no matter what the subject under discussion may be, whether it is citizenship, elementary science or stories. Similarly all oral discussions must be watched for accuracy of speech and **complete statement** answers. In the oral work emphasis should also be placed upon smartness in rising to answer, in standing properly and in sitting down quietly. Good or bad habits may easily be developed. In written exercises for seatwork care should be taken to insist upon neatness, fairly large and clear writing, and in the use of capitals, periods and question marks.

In this article there are four groups of five lessons each making a total of twenty lessons for each month with seatwork exercises based upon them. These are intended as a handy reference for suitable material for the busy teacher. At the outset of the year a scribbler should be definitely assigned for Language work. To keep these clean and tidy they should be gathered up after each lesson and kept by the teacher. Otherwise they will present a sorry appearance in a short time.

In classes where it is necessary or convenient to combine Grade II with Grade III for language, it will be found that this outline is very suitable for such combined grades.

LESSON I

STORY FOR REPRODUCTION

Billy Guards the Chicks

"Peter! Peter! puss, puss, puss! Where can that little cat have gone to? He hasn't been in for his food all day. How am I ever to keep him at home?" and Peter's mistress looked quite concerned. Just then she saw Billy, the big, fluffy sheep dog looking up at her with his soft, faithful eyes. "Why, Billy, you're the very fellow I need. You must go and find Peter and see that he doesn't stray beyond the gate."

Billy gave a little bark and off he went. Soon he came back driving Peter in front of him ~~as he had seen his father drive the sheep~~. Every time after that when Peter wanted

to go beyond the gate, Billy would stand in front of him as if to say: "No you don't, Mr. Peter. It's against the rules."

Early that spring some little yellow chicks were hatched. Billy's mistress put them in a little pen with some sand to scratch in. One nice, warm day she let the chicks out to run around the yard, forgetting for a moment that Peter the cat was very fond of young chickens. After a while she thought of Peter and ran back to see if the chicks were safe. She couldn't find them anywhere but she saw Peter running around Billy in a very funny way while the little sheep dog kept growling and barking at him. Billy's mistress went quietly up to him and there, in a ring made by his two great paws were all the tiny chicks safe and warm. Soon they were back in their pen. Peter was chased away, and Billy got a nice, big bone with lots of meat on it for having saved the little chickens.

Oral questions:

1. What were the names of the cat and dog?
 2. What trouble did Peter's mistress have with him?
 3. What kind of dog was Billy? How does he drive sheep?
 4. How did he help his mistress with Peter?
 5. Why did he gather the chickens in his paws?
 6. Why was Peter anxious to get at them?
 7. What other harm does a cat often do?
 8. What did Billy get for being faithful?
- Have the story retold in full for several children.

Seatwork:

Write three sentences about the trouble Peter caused his mistress telling the trouble he was, who had to look after him, and what very naughty thing he tried to do.

LESSON II

Review the use of capitals at the beginning of sentences and for proper names. Teach about capital I.

Rewrite these sentences putting in capitals, periods and question marks.

i see john and mary in the car
 does agnes live in lethbridge
 tell george to come here quickly
 there are two eggs in harry's hat
 i am going to invite effie and her cousin to my party
 are you going to mrs brown's party
 is james at central school
 my birthday is on monday but mary's is on saturday
 i call my puppy towser and my cat tarzan
 does santa claus come at christmas

LESSON III
PICTURE STUDY



Oral discussion:

Give suitable names to the boy and the four puppies.

What are they getting for their dinner?

Do they live on a farm or in town?

Where did the boy get the milk for them?

How did he carry it?

Why is he wearing overalls?

Do you think he milked the cow himself? Why?

What is the matter with his shoe? How did this happen?

What kind of puppies are they? Tell about their ears, tails and color.

What will they be good for when they grow up? What are they good for now?

How does a puppy drink? What name do we give to the way it drinks?

Obtain as many names for the picture as possible and write them on the blackboard.

Seatwork:

Choose the name you like best for the picture.

Write a story of three sentences about the picture telling what the dogs were doing before, how they knew when to come, what they will do afterward.

LESSON IV

ORIGINAL STORY

The Postman

Oral discussion:

Talk about how often he comes, about his uniform and mail bag.

Find out what he brings besides letters, where he gets the mail and how it is sorted out for him before he starts.

How does he know where to leave the mail and whom it is for?

What happens if a stamp falls off a letter or if not enough are put on?

Seatwork:

Write three or four sentences about the postman bringing the letters and papers.

Watch the capitals and periods.

LESSON V

Review the use of here, hear; would, wood.

Teach, ant and aunt.

Rewrite these sentences filling in the blanks.

1. My _____ does not _____ very well.
2. Come _____ and take this piece of _____.
3. Why _____ you not go to visit your _____?
4. The little _____ can carry quite a big stick of _____.
5. Those children _____ not obey their _____.
6. I _____ not be afraid if an _____ ran over my hand.

LESSON VI

STORY FOR REPRODUCTION

A Letter From Toy

131 Victoria Avenue,
Vancouver, B.C.,
May 22, 1930

Dear Grade III Boys and Girls:

My name is Toy and I am a fluffy little white dog. I live with my master and mistress in Vancouver and love to take trips into the Rocky Mountains where I can paddle in the streams or chase chipmunks. I like very much to ride in the car and bark at all the other dogs that I see. My home is just a few blocks from the Pacific ocean and every day I go down to the beach for a run. If I see a sea-gull sitting

on the sand a long way off I run as fast as I can right up to where he is. When I am almost there he flies away for he knows that I am only playing and that is his part of the game.

At home they have taught me a lot of tricks. I can sit up and clap my hands just as well as anybody. When I want something, I go near it and sit up and wag my paws up and down until someone gives me what I am begging for. I like to dance to the radio music, too. I just walk round and round on my hind legs and hold my paws very high. Sometimes I give a quick little turn to the music. Everybody laughs and says I am very clever. As soon as I am done dancing I bark two or three times and that means, "I think I deserve something for entertaining you." Then I get a piece and often I am taken out for a walk. I love my master and mistress very much and when they return home after being away I go through all sorts of antics to show that I am glad to see them. I only wish every doggie had as good a home as I have.

Your little friend,
Toy.

Oral discussion:

Who is Toy and where does he live?

Tell about several things he likes to do.

Where do big dogs often ride on a car? Where does Toy?

Tell about two tricks he can do.

What other tricks have you ever seen a dog do?

How was Toy paid for his tricks?

Why is he sad when his master and mistress leave?

How does he act when they return?

Seatwork:

Write a letter in answer to Toy telling him all about yourself just as he has done. See that you get the heading correct. Tell what you are, what your name is, where you live, and what you play.

LESSON VII

Rearrange these sentences and put in the proper capitals and periods:

1. little i tree on bird a see the
2. someone me wish i play with would
3. on curls his little has baby beautiful that golden head
4. lion keep to mōuse the quiet told little the
5. afraid yourself hurt i will that am you
6. kittens day grew the every smarter

LESSON VIII
PICTURE STUDY



Oral discussion:

What day of the week is it?

Whose clothes are the children washing and ironing?

Name all the things used for this.

How did the dolls get their clothes dirty?

Where do the children get the hot water and how do they heat the irons?

Why are the dolls and toys looking on?

What have the little girls on to save their own clothes?

Why is their mother helping? What does she think about it?

What will the children do when the clothes are dried and ironed?

Get several good names for the picture.

Seatwork:

Write a short story telling about the children dressing their dolls, putting them in the carriages and taking them out for a walk.

LESSON IX

ORIGINAL STORY
The Farmer

Oral discussion:

Talk about his home, his barns and land, about the different animals and poultry.

Find out all the class can tell about his work of ploughing, seeding, and harvesting, about the fall and winter work.

Discuss how his children get to school and what they have to do around home.

Tell what the farmer's wife does.

Seatwork:

Write a short story about the farmer's home and work, telling what you see in the farmyard, what work the farmer has to do, how the children help, what the farmer's wife does.

LESSON X**Oral exercise:**

Get as many suitable words as possible to fill in the blank. Try to get at least fifteen or twenty. Such words as large, wax, pretty, mamma, etc.

Mary has a (———) doll.

Leave these on the blackboard and for seatwork have the children rewrite the sentence as often as they can, but using two words at a time for the blanks and not the same word in different sentences. Thus:

Mary has a **pretty** wax doll.

Mary has a **large** mamma doll.

LESSON XI**STORY FOR REPRODUCTION****Jenny Gets a Free Ride**

Jenny was a little nanny-goat and she belonged to two little girls, Rose and Mary. She always followed the children and wherever they went Jenny ran after them, giving gentle little bleats. One day when the children were rather late coming down for their walk, Jenny was heard jumping up the stairs to their bedroom. When she got there, with one bound she leaped up on the bed and the children shouted for joy. What fun it was and how they all laughed, but just then mother came in. Jenny had to jump off the bed and go downstairs, but what did she do then but jump up on the back of the sofa. The children said she must think she was in the mountains.

By and by, they set out for a walk—the mother and Mary with Rose in the baby carriage, Spot, the dog, and

Jenny, running after them all. Now this morning they were going into the village and on trips like these Mother used to buy some candies and give two or three to Jenny. This morning she passed right by the candy shop to the great disappointment of Jenny, who liked anything sweet. Jenny wouldn't pass the shop, and nothing could make her leave the door. When she found that Mother wouldn't come back, what do you think she did? She flung herself down flat on the ground and lay there, refusing to move. Now you will never guess what happened! As it was getting late, and Rose and Mary had to get back for lunch, Mother and Mary picked Jenny right up and put her in the baby carriage. There she sat in Rose's seat, straight up like one of the children, with her hoofs hanging over the strap. So Mother had to wheel her all the way home, much to the joy of the children and the villagers who saw them. But Jenny didn't get her candy that day.

Oral discussion:

What did Jenny like to do?
 Why did she rush upstairs? Why did she do there?
 What happened when mother came in?
 How did Jenny behave in the parlor?
 Name all those that went for a walk. Where did they go?
 What did Jenny expect to get?
 What happened at the candy store?
 What would you call a boy or girl who acted this way?
 What did Mother have to do with Jenny?
 Tell how Jenny looked in the baby carriage and why everybody laughed.

Seatwork:

Write a few sentences telling about Jenny's free ride.

LESSON XII

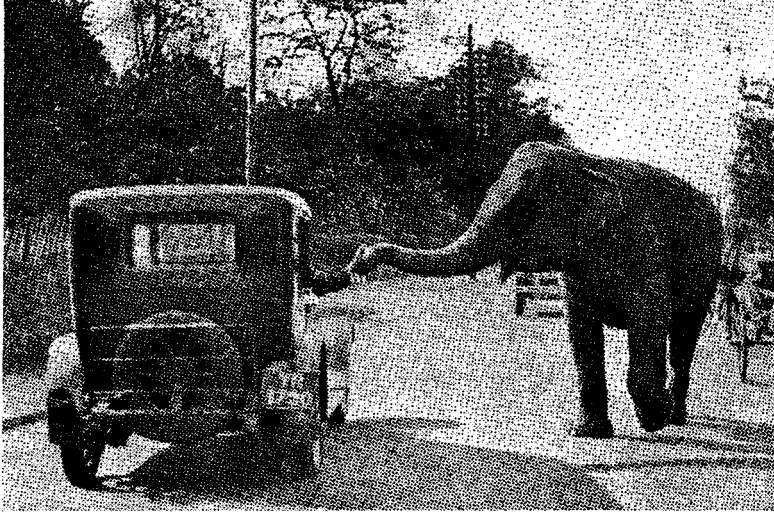
Teach the abbreviations for the days of the week and review—foot, feet, yard, yards, Mister, Mistress.

Seatwork:

Write abbreviations for:
 Tuesday, Mister, Saturday, yards, Wednesday, feet,
 Monday, Mistress.

Write words for:
 Thurs., Sun., yds., Wed., Mrs., Sat., ft., Tues.

LESSON XIII
PICTURE STUDY



Oral discussion:

Name this picture and the elephant.

This scene is in England. It is a nice Spring day with the flowers and shrubs all in bloom. The circus is moving from one town to another. This elephant likes to stop everybody and not let them pass until they feed him.

What is he likely getting here?

How does he handle his food?

Who generally goes with an elephant on a trip like this?

Where does he ride and how does he drive the elephant?

Describe the elephant's size, legs, trunk, head, eyes, ears, and mouth.

Did you ever hear of the bear in Banff that stopped every car in order to be fed? Tell about it.

Seatwork:

Write a short story telling what this elephant is doing, where it is going, what you have seen an elephant do at the circus.

LESSON XIV

ORIGINAL STORY
A Trip on the Train

Oral discussion:

Talk about where to go, about the preparations and hurry to get to the station.

Have the children describe the train, including coaches, baggage car and engine.

Name all the men who form the crew. What does each one do?

How fast does the train travel, what makes it go, and why does it not run off the track?

Seatwork:

Write a few sentences about the train or the trip, telling about the men who look after the train, the different parts of the train and what you do when on the train.

LESSON XV

Teach the use of the capital for each line of poetry.

Review the use of the question mark.

Seatwork:

Write carefully one stanza of "The Honey Bee's Song," page 42 of the Reader.

Make up three questions yourself.

Find and copy three questions from your Reader.

LESSON XVI

STORY FOR REPRODUCTION

Bimbo's Grade III Reader,

Bimbo is a little elephant who lives in a jungle in a very hot country. He doesn't go to school and read out of a book as we do but he has a book all his own just the same, and it tells him all sorts of things. His lessons are printed on the ground and trees around him and he learns to read very quickly. He doesn't sit down to read either but does it while he is walking and running. Right this minute he is reading the story written on the mud on the slippery slide of the river bank. It tells him about three little bears that played on the slide that very morning. He knew their mother was with them, too. He would like to find them and play, too, but he must hurry on. Soon he comes to a small path and reads the story of a pretty little deer that went that way a little while ago. He does want to go and hunt for her but it is getting late and he hurries on. "Ha, ha, King Lion has been playing tag with his children. I wish they would ask me to play with them," said the little elephant as he read the story about them on the ground. "Oh, oh, oh! A big snake has been here, too. I can read his story on the ground, too. I wonder where he has gone. I must be careful." On he runs with his trunk in the air. It told him that there were panthers near and he wondered if they were the naughty little panthers who stole his nice ball. All along the road there were stories written—stories told by the marks of birds' claws, by funny prints of hoofs and paws and claws; stories told by the grass that had been tramped down and

by the trees that were stripped of leaves; stories told by the wind and the air. All this is just as interesting to the little elephant as a story book is to any boy or girl.

Oral discussion:

What kind of book does Bimbo read?

Did you ever read one like it?

Tell when and where and what you learned out of it.

How did Bimbo read about the bear's cubs playing, about the little deer, about King Lion, about the snake, and about the panthers?

What country did Bimbo live in?

Name all the other animals you can that live in that country.

Seatwork:

Write three or four sentences telling about the different pages in Bimbo's book and how he read it.

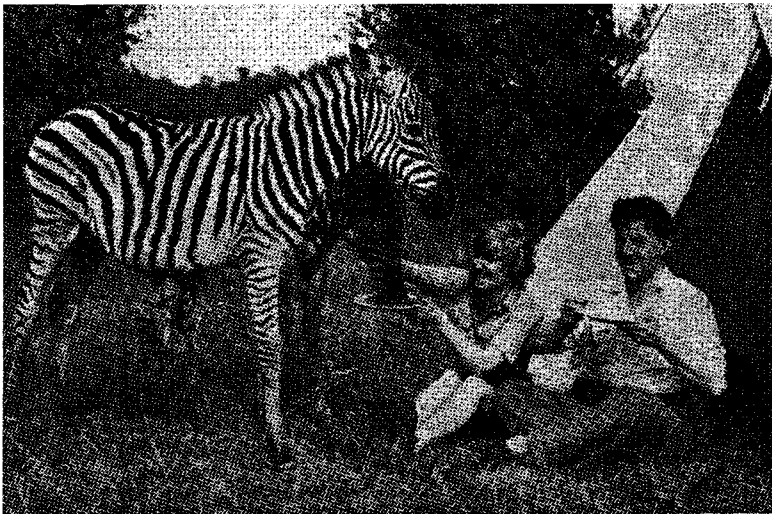
LESSON XVII

Dramatize: Belling the Cat.

Assign parts to Father Sharp Eyes, Mother Sharp Eyes, several Mice Children, Little Short Tail, Jimmy Gray Back, and the Cat. After the conference is ended, have the Cat enter while the Mice scurry for cover.

Seatwork:

Copy carefully, from the Reader, Little Short Tail's speech.

LESSON XVIII**PICTURE STUDY**

Oral discussion:

These people are not in a circus but camping in Africa.
 They would rather take pictures with a camera than
 kill the animals. Many of the wild animals became
 very tame, and here we have two begging for some-
 thing to eat.

What kind of animal are they?

What other animal you know are they most like?

How are they marked?

Are they larger or smaller than our horses?

Is this the first time they have come to the camp? How
 do you know?

What do you think the woman is feeding them?

Seatwork:

Write three sentences describing the zebra, telling
 where he lives, what he does, and what he eats.

LESSON XIX

ORIGINAL STORY

The Milkman

Oral discussion:

Tell about his cart, his horse or truck, how you know
 your own milkman, where milk is kept in the wagon,
 how the milkman carries it (bottles in basket).

Tell when he comes, what he gets in return for the milk.

Seatwork:

Write a short story about your milkman, telling three
 interesting things about him.

LESSON XX

Oral review of difficult words in the Reader, from pages
 9 to 30, such as:

farewell

ladder

feared

noble

eager

cobweb

thimble

whole

scamper

hayloft

ploughman

autumn

squeaked

coach

guiding

steady

chorus

woody

patient

pumpkins

fares

catches

fruitful

scooped

Seatwork:

Write short sentences to show what each word means.

LITERATURE STUDIES SUGGESTED FOR SEPTEMBER

The Reader, pages 1-35.
Memory—The Rockaby Lady.
Stories—Merry Animal Tales.
Dramatization—Belling the Cat.

The chief aim of Grade III Literature is to develop an appreciation of the information obtained through reading and thus create a desire for voluntary supplementary reading. In addition to this, the teacher's questioning discovers whether or not the pupil has grasped the details of the story. The latter object is gained through well-chosen questions, while the former is better developed through oral reproduction of the whole story. Questions for this grade, whether they are to be answered orally or as seatwork, must be very short and very definite. Only **completed statement** answers should be accepted at any time. The following are suggested questions, typical of those for all selections.

How the Little Kite Learned to Fly:

Which kite could fly?
What did the little kite say?
What did the big kite want the little one to do?
What did the little kite do when it was by itself?
How did it feel at first?
What did it find out?
What lesson can we learn from the story?

Ming-Ting:

Where did Ming-Ting live?
Tell how the people in China dress.
Who owned the kite?
What did Ming-Ting dream about the kite?
Where did the kite take him?
What happened to him then?
What was Ming-Ting doing all this time?
What lesson does the story teach?

Harvest Song:

When is the harvest time?
What do we do during the harvest?
What things do we store away?
Why do we do this?
Whom should we thank for these things?

James Watt and the Tea Kettle:

Where did James Watt live?
What did he wonder at as he watched the kettle?
What did his aunt think about him?
How long did he work on his steam engine?
For what was it first used?
What do you know about this engine?
For what is steam used now?
Why do we still remember James Watt?

ARITHMETIC

G. G. Harman

GRADE IV

The first few weeks of the year should be spent on review. By review we do not mean drill of the same type which was given in Grade III. The same kind of drill will perpetuate the same errors. Let the review serve two purposes: first, that of recall of previously memorized material; and second, that of diagnosis of errors. From the latter the teacher will be able to devise remedial exercises. Spend the first month in reviewing and correcting deficiencies.

What Is the Attainment of the Class?

There is considerable satisfaction in knowing whether the class is well graded, and whether all pupils are ready for the year's work. By giving a few tests one may get this information, and at the same time learn much concerning the weaknesses of individual pupils. A few sample tests are given below. One must remember that the scores are only approximate, that they were obtained outside the province, and that they are valid there only when the printed material is placed in the pupils' hands. However, if the pupils are asked to copy the questions before beginning work in their note-books, a fairly accurate comparison may be made.

(a) Addition. Time: 8 minutes.

Type:	927	297	837, etc.
	379	925	882
	756	473	959
	837	983	603
	924	315	118
	110	661	781
	854	794	756
	965	177	222
	844	124	525

Pupils should do about six of these with accuracy of at least 80 %.

(b) Subtraction. Time: 4 minutes.

Type:	64547329	60472960	80836465	92971900
	48813139	50196521	49178036	62207032

Pupils should complete about five of these with accuracy of at least 80 %.

It should be remembered that all pupils will not reach

the score given. This is the median or average score of the class. Certain pupils will be above and others below this standard.

(c) **The New Standard Arithmetic Test** gives us the following assistance:

Time: 30 minutes.

Add	Add	Add	Subtract	Add	Subtract
6	5	7	8	17	12
1	0	4	3	5	5
—	—	3	—	—	—
		5			
		—			

Subtract		Add	Subtract	Subtract	
16	$2 \times 5 =$	37	15	765	$2 \overline{) 8}$
4		41	9	327	
—		26	—	—	
		55			
		—			

Add	Multiply			and rem.
26890	253	$0 \times 4 =$	$10 \div 2 =$	$8 \overline{) 59}$
58475	6			
43261	—			
—				

Add	Subtract			Multiply
24	53212	$9 \overline{) 58}$	$1/3$ of 156	4789
$12 \frac{4}{5}$	34563			76
—	—			—

Number right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Score	7	13	19	25	28	31	34	36	37	39	42
Number right	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	21	21	22
Score	44	47	50	53	56	58	60	61	62	64	65

(d) Time: 20 minutes.

- Charles has 6 brown rabbits and 5 white ones. How many rabbits has he?
- At a school picnic 9 boys and 15 girls went swimming. How many went swimming?
- Jim has 3 marbles, John has 8, and Bill has 9. If they put them all together how many will there be?
- A hen had 9 chicks but 3 of them died. How many were left?
- Alice gathered 18 roses and took a dozen of them to a friend. How many did she keep?
- What is the cost of 3 boxes of dates at 21 cents a box?
- A freight train had 16 cars. Seven of them were box cars. How many flat cars were there?
- There were 100 people at a school play in the afternoon and 150 in the evening. How many people went to the two performances?

9. Three boys together gathered 21 bushels of walnuts. If they shared them equally, how many bushels did each boy get?
10. Bob bought a dozen handkerchiefs at the rate of 3 for \$1.00. How much did he pay for them?
11. Mr. Jones bought a new car for \$975. The dealer allowed him \$325 for his old car. How much did he have to pay in addition to the allowance for the old car?
12. Sarah sleeps ten hours every night. If she goes to sleep at 9 o'clock, when does she wake up?
13. A man paid the street-car fare for himself and two friends. If the fare is 7 cents, how much change should he receive from a half-dollar?
14. How many pounds of popcorn will be needed to plant a 30-acre field if 6 lbs. are needed for one acre?
15. Jack had no marbles so he bought as many 3-cent marbles as he could get for 15 cents and then Tom gave him 2 more. How many did Jack have then?
16. Mrs. Fox started a savings account by depositing \$85. The next month she deposited \$75. A few days later she drew out \$40. What was her balance in the bank?
17. A class gave a candy sale and made \$23 with which they wish to buy a picture. The picture costs \$30 and the 20 pupils in the class decide to share the rest of the cost equally. How much will it cost each?
18. In each 21 pounds of milk there is a pound of milk sugar. How many pounds of milk sugar are there in 1806 lbs. of milk?
19. A camping party took 12 1/2 lbs. of bacon for a 5-days' trip. How much did that allow for each day?
20. Jim has 20 cents to spend for marbles. He is going to buy 2 at 3 cents each and spend the remainder for 2-cent marbles. How many will he get altogether?
21. When oranges are 2 for 5 cents, how many can I buy for 60 cents?
22. Milk sells at 12 cents a quart. At this rate, how much will 12 gallons cost?

No. right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Score	12	21	29	34	39	44	48	53	58	61	64	67	70
No. right	14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24												
Score	74 77 80 83 85 88 91 94 96 98 100												

Adding the scores in tests (c) and (d), the average attainment of a Grade IV class during the first month is approximately represented by a score of 32.

The tests suggested thus far are general and they do not analyze difficulties. Informal diagnostic tests tell what particular difficulties each pupil has. When these are dis-

covered, the pupil will be given the special type of drill which he requires. A diagnostic test should feature and test one particular ability. If, for example, one wished to know how efficiently the pupils could multiply by a one-place number when zeros appeared in the multiplicand, he might give a few examples such as:

(e)	320	807	5006	840	309	8009	504
	9	4	7	5	6	8	2
	607	4007					
	9	8					

One's interest here is in the accuracy of the work. Each point of difficulty will be noted. Probably the pupil will do the type 320 correctly, but be unsuccessful with the type 608

If so, correct the difficulty and then give a drill series such as:

504	803	1904	3702	9307	408
6	9	6	7	2	8

Below are a number of typical types of drill questions:

(f)	23	45	93	(g)	7	14	45
	25	27	57		24	5	39
	47	63	64		13	37	4
	59	52	27		9	72	8
	68	48	55		37	6	17

(h)	\$23.40	\$46.24	\$92.04
	47.75	19.37	37.66
	26.34	28.85	25.05

(i)	364	528	450
	279	123	360
	423	456	729
	364	789	814
	527	450	257
	829	369	836
	423	248	259
	679	175	382

(j)	Subtract	393	541	837	725
		178	186	595	287

(k)	Subtract	373	532	512
		294	468	465

(l)	Subtract	3420	2805	6052
		1657	1329	3829

(m) Subtract	6400	5000	2700
	2937	1389	2224

(n)	3374	5825
	6	7

(o)	5096	2704	3060
	6	8	9

(p)	6) 8745	7) 9213	3) 5276
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(q)	6) 2745	7) 3213	4) 3276
-----	----------	----------	----------

In the following types taken from the Cleveland Survey Report, there is a time limit set that does not permit the children to complete all the examples. The tests show, therefore, both the complexity of the processes which a given grade can master and also the number of examples of a given type that can be performed in the specified time.

(r) Addition. Time: 30 seconds. Expected score, 15.

1	6	9	0	4	1	7	9	3	2
2	6	5	1	2	3	7	6	0	4
1	3	6	0	3	8	9	7	8	2
5	8	9	7	2	1	9	6	0	5
1	4	8	0	2	3	6	7	9	5
7	1	5	7	1					

(s) Subtraction. Time: 30 seconds. Expected score, 11.

9	7	11	8	12	1	9	13	4	12	8	11	12	5
9	3	6	1	3	0	7	8	3	6	0	9	7	1
10	6	11	15	10	12								
2	0	7	8	9	4								

(t) Multiplication. Time: 30 seconds. Expected score, 9.

3	4	9	0	5	4	2	7	4	9	9	5	4	7	6	2
2	7	8	2	6	1	9	6	0	5	1	2	8	0	5	1
3	9	7													
3	6	4													

(u) Division. Time: 30 seconds. Expected score, 9.

3) 9	4) 32	6) 36	2) 0	7) 28
9) 9	3) 21	6) 48	1) 1	5) 10
2) 6	4) 24	7) 63	6) 0	8) 32
1) 8	5) 30	8) 72	1) 0	9) 36
1) 7				

(v) Addition. Time: 30 seconds. Expected score, 5.

5	2	9	2	6	1	4	9	6	2	6	8	5
2	8	8	8	3	4	6	7	7	7	2	5	9
2	8	0	5	4	2	5	1	8	3	3	1	6
0	5	7	0	8	5	3	5	5	4	9	3	3
4	1	6	6	8	4	4	3	5	1	3	8	8

(w) Subtraction. Time: 60 seconds. Expected score, 4.

616	1248	1365	1092	716	1276	1335
456	709	618	472	344	509	419
<hr/>						
707	816	1157				
277	335	908				

(x) Multiplication. Time: 60 seconds. Expected score, 3.

2345	9735	8642	6789	2345	9735	2468
2	5	9	2	6	9	3
<hr/>						
6789	3579	2468				
6	3	7				

(y) Division. Time: 60 seconds. Expected score, 1.

4) 55424	7) 65982	2) 58748	5) 41780
9) 98604	6) 57432	3) 82689	6) 82184

(z) Addition. Time: 180 seconds. Expected score, 2.

7493	8937	8625	2123	5142
9016	6345	4091	1679	0376
6487	2783	3844	5555	4955
7591	4883	8697	6331	9314
6166	1341	7314	6808	5507

Problems

Test (d) will give some idea of the efficiency of the class in problem-solving. Supplement the diagnostic test outlined above by oral problems every day, and base them on the four fundamental operations. Confine the work to one-step problems.

Outline

First week: Types (a), (f), (g), (h), (i), (r), (v)—oral problems.

Second week: Types (b), (j), (k), (l), (m), (s), (w)—oral problems.

Third week: Types (c), (d), (n), (o), (t), (x)—oral problems.

Fourth week: Types (u), (y), and others in division—oral problems

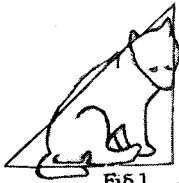


Fig. 1



Fig. 2



Fig. 3



Fig. 4

Animals may be drawn as shown above. Obtain the correct shape for the body and draw within this as in Fig. 1. Correct the lines and proportions, shade or finish in wash.

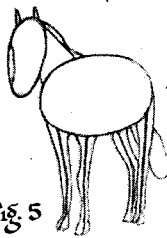


Fig. 5

Fig. 5 - Block-
ing in

Fig. 6 - Filling
in the form

Fig. 7 - Finishing
in outline.



Fig. 6

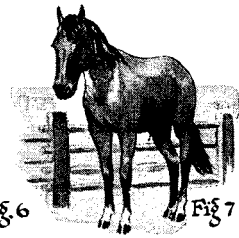


Fig. 7

Make a drawing of a horse or cow in the same way.

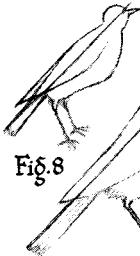


Fig. 8

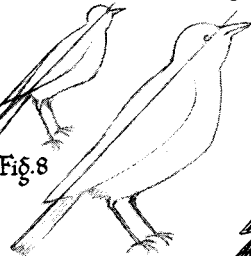


Fig. 9



Fig. 10

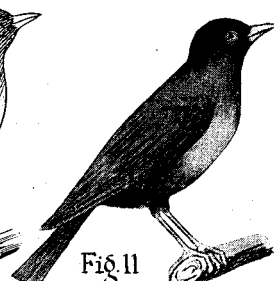


Fig. 11

The drawing of the robin above is made on a central axis around which the drawing is made.

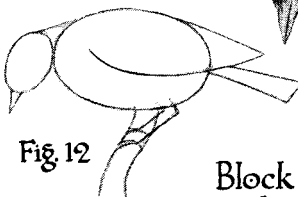


Fig. 12

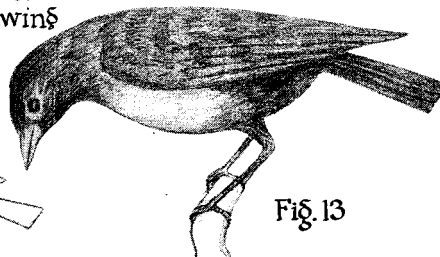


Fig. 13

Block in the bird shape - Fig. 12 and make a pencil drawing.

ART

R. W. Hedley, M.A., B.Educ. G. F. Manning, M.A.

GRADE V

The work for September is the drawing of animal and bird forms. These are to be rendered in line, in light and shade, and in flat washes of grey or of color. A plate of drawings in illustration of the text is included, and the teacher is also referred to the first exercise of the Grade V work, to be found in Elementary Art, Book 3.

The illustrations in both of these plates are not intended to be copied by the pupils. They are usually too small to serve as copies, and, if so used, would probably lead to the practice of making small drawings. Their purpose is to suggest to teacher and pupil the way in which such drawings should be made—the method of attack which will result in ability to draw freely and with confidence.

Generally speaking, the child beginning the drawing of a bird or animal will concentrate on some one detail or small part, and complete this carefully before proceeding to the next section. The head of the bird or animal is the most common starting point. When the child proceeds to add the body to the head, it is often the case that the head has been drawn on too large a scale to permit the rest of the drawing to be made on the paper. Frequently, too, the scale will have been too small, and the completed drawing occupies only a fraction of the sheet of drawing paper. Again, it will frequently be observed that in the completed drawing, made in this way, the head and body are not in correct position relative to each other. The plan of proceeding from the part to the whole has, therefore, obvious disadvantages with young children. The drawings on the plates all suggest the opposite method of procedure—from the whole to the parts.

An examination of the object to be drawn will usually reveal a bold shape, rectangular, triangular or elliptical, within which the body may be drawn. The positions of the legs may then be indicated by means of lines rapidly and lightly drawn, and the position and shape of the head may be shown in the same manner as the body itself. It will be found that the head is elliptical or rectangular or triangular (truncated). This preliminary blocking-in may be rapidly done and the use of an eraser at this stage should be discouraged. Teach the child to draw freely, swinging the hand around several times before actually allowing the

pencil to touch the paper. In this way drawings will be larger, bolder and more filled with character.

The next step is the making of a careful comparison between the object to be drawn and the blocked-in outline on the paper. Are the proportions correct? Are the parts in correct position relative to one another? Care at this stage is essential if the finished drawing is to be accurate. Where errors are found, it is an easy matter to make corrections, as no detailed drawing has yet been attempted. When the pupil is satisfied that the blocked-in shape is correctly drawn, the various parts should be drawn within the shapes which outline them, and if reasonable care is used, an accurate representation should result. Then the drawing may be completed after guide lines have been erased.

The above steps presuppose that the pupil has a good mental picture of the object to be drawn, that it has been carefully examined, in whole and in part, by the pupil before any drawing is attempted. An important function of drawing is that of teaching more careful observation. If pupils are allowed to plunge into the drawing, with scarcely a glance at the object to be drawn, results are likely to be inaccurate. The pupil must be taught to "see" the object, to form a good mental image and to transfer this to the sheet of paper. Many successful teachers spend a considerable part of the teaching time in talking about the object to be drawn and encouraging the pupils to talk. Questions about the shape, position, size, proportions, etc., direct attention to things of most importance and emphasize the need of exactness and care. Following careful preparation of this kind, which may also include some "tracing" of the object in the air, and some recall with eyes closed, the blocking-in is done more confidently and freely.

An examination of Exercise 1, Grade V, in Elementary Art, Book 3, will show a method of studying parts. The head, the eye, the beak, the legs, feets, etc., require detailed study if they are to be exactly rendered. This is a part of the work which may precede the blocking-in of the whole object, or it may come between the blocking-in and the finishing. Several seatwork periods may be profitably used in this way, careful sketches of details being made on a somewhat larger scale. The methods of shading may be similarly experimented with, and as a result the pupil knows exactly how to convert the roughly blocked-in figure into the finished drawing.

In the wash drawings, the pupils may be encouraged to draw freely on rough paper without any preliminary sketching—to draw quickly and to draw over and over. Draw the parts and draw the whole. It is here assumed that careful study, as outlined above, has preceded the free drawing.

GEOGRAPHY

J. M. Roxburgh, M.A.

GRADE VI

LESSON 1

EUROPE

It is proposed in this department to give a series of outlines on the course in Grade VI Geography. The text referred to in the lessons that follow is that authorized for use in Manitoba schools, namely, The New Canadian Geography (revised edition.) The student should be provided with a portfolio in which his work in map making will appear, and also his notes. It is advised that the student use accurate outline maps ready printed or mimeographed for his use.

Size and Position of Europe.—Europe is the smallest of the continents. It is scarcely more than a third as large as North America, and is approximately of the same area as Canada if Newfoundland is included. In structure it is often considered to be part of the large mass known as Eurasia, that is, Europe and Asia. Two oceans wash its shores, the Atlantic and the Arctic. Across the Atlantic to America is a distance of about 3,000 miles.

Why Europe is Important:

1. It is the home of the white race.
2. It is centrally placed in relation to the other continents.
3. The irregularity of the coast-line brings every part of the continent into fairly close proximity to the sea.
4. The people are enterprising and industrious. This may be attributed in part to the fact that they are inhabitants of the temperate zone.
5. Other reasons are: Its great population (about 450 millions.) Its large area of agricultural lands. Its great natural resources in minerals, especially coal and iron. Its manufacturing industry. Its vast trade, built up on the exchange of manufactured goods for food and raw materials. Its vast accumulation of wealth in the large cities.

How We May Travel to Europe:

1. The St. Lawrence Route. From Montreal or Quebec we may follow the route either north or south of New-

foundland, and thence across the Atlantic. Ships from St. John and Halifax will join those taking the more southerly route.

2. Ships from ports on the Pacific coast will sail southward to the Panama Canal, and then eastward to Europe.

3. A new port is being developed at Churchill on Hudson Bay. By this route the wheat from the prairie provinces will reach the market in Europe by a course about a thousand miles nearer than at present by Montreal.

In addition to the communication with Europe by ships which carry passengers, mail, and freight, there is correspondence by telegraph cables laid beneath the sea, and also by radio. Recently the voyage of the R-100 has demonstrated the possibility of commerce by air-ship.

EXERCISES

1. Write in the nearest millions of square miles the areas of the following alongside for comparison: Europe and Canada (including Newfoundland.) Europe and Asia. Europe and North America. Europe and Australia. State the result of the comparison in each case (See the text, pages 310 and 312.)
2. Where does Europe lie in relation to Africa? In relation to North America? In relation to Asia?
3. State four natural advantages of Europe which account for its importance.
4. Show clearly how the central position of Europe among the continents is an advantage in commerce.
5. Show how trade in Europe has an advantage in its irregular coast-line. What reasons can you give for saying that nearness to the coast is of little advantage nowadays to the whole nation.
6. Why are people of the temperate zone more industrious than those of tropical countries? Give examples.
7. Trace on an outline map of the world the trade routes which are used to communicate between Canada and Europe. The map on page 266 in the text will show these. Suggest a second route by vessel in which a passenger may travel from Vancouver to a European port. The pupils will note that the map on page 266 being drawn on Mercator's projection does not show accurately the relative lengths of the various trade routes. For accuracy the routes should be illustrated by means of a globe rather than a map.

LESSON 2

COAST AND SURFACE FEATURES OF EUROPE

The Coast Line.—We have already noted that the coast-line of Europe is irregular, and that this has had a marked

effect on the growth of trade. Before taking up a study of the various countries of Europe we should note some of the main features of the coast that will come up for notice at a later time.

The West Coast: With the map before us (page 124) we notice on the south the large peninsula consisting of Portugal and Spain (the Iberian Peninsula.) North of this is the Bay of Biscay. The largest islands on the coast are Ireland and Great Britain. Between this and the continent is the North Sea. Farther north is an inland sea, the Baltic. Almost surrounded by the ocean are two large peninsulas, Denmark and Scandinavia (Norway and Sweden.)

The South Coast.—On this coast we have the great Mediterranean Sea.

The word “mediterranean” means in the middle of the land. A narrow body of water between Italy and the Balkan Peninsula is the Adriatic Sea. Between Greece and Asia Minor is the Aegean Sea. South of Russia are the Black and Caspian Seas, the latter with no outlet to the ocean.

Note the large islands in the Mediterranean: Corsica belonging to France, Sardinia and Sicily forming part of Italy, and Crete belonging to Greece. Two great peninsulas jut out into the Mediterranean: Italy and Greece. The places we have named in this region are famous for their association with great events in history.

Straits and capes are not of importance except as they affect the great trade routes. A ship entering the Mediterranean would first sight Cape St. Vincent, then pass the Strait of Gibraltar. If it were bound for a Black Sea port it would pass through the Dardanelles and Bosphorus.

The northermost point of the continent is North Cape, which is beyond the Arctic Circle where for days in mid-summer the sun never sets. To enter a port on the North Sea coast a vessel would pass usually through the English Channel and Strait of Dover. The cape known as Land’s End on the south-west of England is therefore an important point on the charts of sailors.

Pupils should print on the outline maps the physical features above named, adding others that seem to be of importance, based on knowledge gained in their general reading. Trace the course of several imaginary journeys from one part of the European coast to another.

EXERCISES

1. On an outline map of Europe print in the names of coast features of the continent.
2. Place in the blanks the names of European islands: Two British Isles are Gr. B. + Ireland To Denmark belongs the island of Zealand To France belongs the large

Mediterranean island of Cyprus. To Italy belongs the islands of Sardinia. To Greece belongs Crete.

3. Seven countries of Europe situated on peninsulas are Spain, Portugal, Greece, Italy, Turkey, Denmark, and Norway.
4. Supply the names of important straits: Entrance to the North Sea is by Skagerrak; to the Mediterranean by Gibraltar; to the Baltic by Danish Straits; to the Black Sea by two straits Bosphorus and Dardanelles.
5. Supply the name of a cape or headland important in relation to a trade route: Ships coming north from Gibraltar must pass Cape Finis. On rounding the north coast of Spain they see Cape Finis. On entering the English Channel they first see Cape Finis. The northermost point of the continent is Cape North.

LESSON 3

EUROPE—PHYSICAL FEATURES

Surface Features of Europe.—In this connection study the physical map shown on page 122. It will be observed that there is a highland extending east and west on the south of the continent, a smaller highland on the north in Norway and Sweden extending into the British Isles and Iceland, and a great plain covering the area between the highlands.

The main highland of Europe in Spain shows several ranges of mountains. Between France and Spain it is represented by the Pyrenees. In Switzerland it reaches its greatest elevation in the Alps, the highest peak being Mont Blanc. It branches off into Italy in the Appenines, extends into the Balkan Peninsula (the Balkan Mts.) and beyond the Black Sea (the Caucasus Mts.) The Carpathians are a branch of the main axis which enclose on three sides the plain of Hungary.

Pupils should print in their outline maps the names of the main surface features of Europe above named.

How Industries are Related to Physical Features of Europe.—

1. The irregular coast line, as has already been noted, has had much to do with the rise of the European peoples to leadership in the world's affairs. Communication by sea has been available for the peoples of all parts of Western Europe, and they have thus had opportunities for adventure and trade.

2. The shallow waters of the North Sea are a famous fishing ground, from which the peoples of Scotland, England, Holland and Norway have derived for centuries a valuable food supply.

3. The "fiords" on the coast of Norway are deep inlets suitable for harborage for fishing boats. They resemble the deep inlets on the coast of B.C., and both are due to the sinking of the shore-line. (See the illustration, page 158.)

4. In the north the Great Plain of Europe is a "tundra" region; that is, it is barren of trees and has only a covering of grass and moss, beneath which there is frozen ground. (See the illustration, page 127.)

5. A large part of the Great Plain is in the forested region, of which much has been cleared and brought under cultivation. This includes England, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Russia, Poland, and others of the smaller nations of the region.

6. In Southern Russia are treeless plains like our prairies. The absence of trees is due to the greater heat and lessened rainfall as compared with the forest belt. Near the Caspian Sea the country is below the sea-level and is almost a desert. These are conditions due to the fact that evaporation from the surface of the sea is very great.

7. The presence of coal and iron in Belgium, France, England, Germany and Sweden has had much to do with the development of these countries industrially.

8. Hungary is a fertile plain of central Europe in which the main industry is agriculture. (See the illustration, page 168.)

EXERCISES

1. Mark on the outline map of Europe the main surface features (the mountain ranges and plains.)
2. What "extractive" industry has been for centuries centred in the North Sea. Explain why. Name the European nations that have been most prominent in the fishing industry.
3. Why are there so many smaller nations in southern and central Europe? (See text, page 126.)
4. Which country is most mountainous? Name the highest peak there. Which country consists mostly of plain?
5. What are the "fiords" of Norway? How have they been formed? What are "tundras"? Show on your outline map the tundra areas of Northern Europe (see the Physical Map.) Note how this area extends into Asia (Map, page 176.)
6. Study of the illustrations in the text.
 - (a) Laplanders, (page 127.) Locate Lapland. Of what race are they? Show the use they make of the reindeer.

- (b) A Norwegian Fiord, (page 158.) What industry is carried on in this region? How are the fiords an advantage in connection with this?
3. Plowing in Hungary (page 166.) Locate the region on the map. What shows the backward state of agriculture there?

LESSON 4

CLIMATE OF EUROPE

Rainfall.—Study carefully the “Rainfall and Wind Map” shown on page 123 in the text.

Europe has in general sufficient rainfall for the needs of agriculture. Only in the extreme south-east of the continent is there an approach to desert conditions. The main influences affecting the rainfall may be stated as follows:

Europe is in the path of the westerly winds, which prevail in temperate regions, and which have in the northern hemisphere a westerly and northerly direction. Note the direction of the arrows on the map, page 123.

The moisture-laden winds from off the Atlantic bring heavy rainfall on all slopes facing the sea on the west. Note places of heaviest rainfall, shaded black on the map. These are western Scotland, the west coast of the Adriatic (Albania), and the Caucasus region on the Black Sea. Heavy rainfall is received also on most of the coastal regions.

Compare this map with that of Canada on page 11. There it will be seen that rainfall in Manitoba, other than in Winnipeg and south-eastern part of the province is approximately the same as that of central Russia, namely, between ten and twenty inches a year.

Dry conditions in the north are not serious, since the evaporation is much less than in the south. A ten-inch rainfall in Northern Russia or Central Sweden is sufficient for crop growing, while the same rainfall in eastern Spain is insufficient.

On an outline map of the continent mark the places that are specially wet or dry. Also the places of abundant moisture and of scarcity of moisture.

Temperature.—Study carefully the map on page 125. The undulating lines drawn in a general east and west direction are known as “isotherms” or “isothermal lines.” They are found by joining places of the same average temperature. Note especially the winter temperatures (heavy lines).

First, notice that the winter temperatures on the coast are higher than those far inland in the same latitude. In

other words it is warmer in winter at the coast than it is inland. This is due partly to the moderating effect of the ocean, in which warm and cold waters are always being mixed. It is due also to the Gulf Stream whose warm waters bathe the shores of Europe. Rising in the Gulf of Mexico where the warmth of the tropical sun is stored up, it moves in a great stream across the Atlantic, a moving mass of warm water many times greater than all the rivers of the world taken together. It is due to this that the winter climate of the British Isles in the same latitude as Manitoba is as mild as that of Northern Texas. Note the upward curve of the winter isotherm (40°) on the western coast of Europe. Study the course of the Gulf Stream on the Map of Ocean Currents, page 264.

Observe further on the map, page 125, the wide difference in the temperatures of winter and summer in the inland regions, and the slight difference in the coastal regions. We say that the inland regions have an "extreme" climate, while the coastal regions have a more "equable" climate.

EXERCISES

1. What winds prevail on the continent of Europe? How do they influence the rainfall of the coastal regions? Why are certain regions inland subject to drought?
2. On an outline map mark the rainfall of the following areas in inches per year: Western Ireland, Germany, France, Hungary, Southern and Northern Italy, Switzerland, Poland, Eastern Russia, and others.
3. Explain how these two factors affect the temperature of Europe: (1) Latitude, (2) Ocean Currents.
4. Which parts of Europe would you choose for an even climate throughout the year? Which parts have extremes of heat and cold?
5. What are the winter and summer temperatures on the average of the following places: Iceland, Southern England, Central Germany?
6. The coast of Norway far into the Arctic Circle is free from ice in winter. Explain why.
7. What is an isotherm? What do the isotherms on the map show as to the effect of the Gulf Stream on the winter temperature of Western Europe? What countries are benefitted by the warmth of the Gulf Stream? What would be the probable effect if there were no Gulf Stream?

ELEMENTARY SCIENCE

G. R. Rowe

GRADE VII

LESSON I

FALL PLANT STUDIES

Simple Study of a Flower and Fruit

The Nasturtium.—The great majority of plants produce flowers. To children and others, the flower is usually the most attractive part of the plant. It is a thing of beauty, splendid in color and wonderful in form. Often there is also a pleasant fragrance. To a plant, however, the flower has one chief purpose, namely, to produce seed.

The Nasturtium is a very common garden flower, and on that account it has been chosen for study here. The plants are easily grown, the seeds being planted in June, after danger of frost is over; and the plant rapidly completes its growth, at length dying down after producing its seed in the fall. A plant of one-year growth, as is this, is known as an "annual." Pupils will be able to name a large number of annual plants whose seeds require planting each year, such as wheat, oats, corn, etc.

Nasturtiums are particularly adapted for planting in borders, or, in the case of the climbing varieties, to cover trellises and rockeries. The flowers vary in color from deep crimson to pale yellow. The flowers being of good size for purposes of study, it will be easy to follow the description given below.

1. Each flower is supported on a slender stalk. Before the flower opens, this remains beneath the shadow of the leaves, but as soon as the flower opens the stalk pushes it up above the leaves so as to be seen by all. There is a purpose in all this, as we shall see, in relation to the visits of insects. Strange to say, also, in the case of this particular plant, as the flower withers and fruit begins to form, the flower stalk curls up into a spiral and draws the ripening fruit down again into the shadow of the leaves. This is no doubt a device for purposes of protection, for the seed is precious to the plant.

2. Surrounding the base of the flower is a circle of five pointed greenish leaves. These make up the calyx, and

each of the five divisions of it is a sepal. They wrap the bud in their folds while the flower is still unopened. After that they take a secondary place and seem quite insignificant. The lower sepal is prolonged into a pointed tube known as the spur or nectar tube, at the bottom of which is a sweetish liquid which forms the chief food of bees, moths, and other insects, as well as of Hummingbirds. As we shall see, the visits of these to the flower serves a very important purpose in helping the plant to produce vigorous seed.

3. The circle of larger colored flower leaves is called the corolla and it consists of five parts known as the petals. It is these that draw the attention of insects by their flowing colors and help to make sure of their visits. The growth of bristly hairs in the throat of the corolla is principally on the two lower petals, and no doubt their purpose is to exclude small insects from the nectar tube.

4. On removing the five petals carefully, there will be seen a number of knobbed shoots in the centre of the flower. Their number will be seen to be usually ten. These are the stamens, and the dry yellow powder bursting from the knobs on the tips of them is the pollen. This pollen is the fertilizing substance which must fall on the pistils by some means or there can be no chance of seeds forming in the flower.

5. In the very centre of the flower within the circle of stamens is the pistil, recognized in this flower by its greenish color and thread-like form, ending at the tip in three small prongs. At the bottom of the pistil after fertilization with pollen takes place, the pod will grow and ripen, enclosing three seeds.

From the observations we have made of the flower of the Nasturtium, we will have noted the following:

- (a) A flower stalk.
- (b) The calyx with five sepals and a nectar tube.
- (c) The corolla with five petals.
- (d) The stamens, eight in number, with pollen at the tips.
- (e) A pistil developing into a pod containing three seeds.

The Nasturtium of our gardens is a flowering plant introduced from Chile, where it grows wild. It is very tender to frosts, the stem and leaves being of delicate watery structure. The round leaves shade the buds from the sun before they come out in bloom. They are of an attractive bright green color and their wavy edges and unusual form are attractive also. The seeds are sown each year and therefore the plant is called an annual. The seed pods that ripen in

the fall are sometimes used as a flavoring or spice in pickles. The plant juice as well as the odor of the flowers is somewhat pungent, hence the Latin name of the plant—*Nasturtium*, or nose-twisting.

It has been readily noticed that the bright color of the flowers and the odor is an attraction to insects. These visit the flowers for the sake of the nectar located deep in the spur. In the throat of the flower will be seen a number of bristly hairs guarding the interior. It is evident that the purpose of Nature is that small insects shall not be admitted to the nectar. Larger insects and moths, as well as Hummingbirds, however, find no difficulty in reaching the nectar. They are met at the entrance by the tips of the yellow stamens which dust them freely with the yellow pollen. The pollen ripens on the stamens a few at a time and as each is ready to discharge its pollen it rises up to bar the entrance to the spur. In this way it is made almost certain that pollen will be distributed among the flowers by visitors looking for food. The pistils rise up into the entrance after all the stamens have ripened and thus it is arranged that flowers are cross-pollinated, not self-pollinated.

The pods which ripen after the flowers pass consist of three seeds enclosed in an outer husk.

The Sweet Pea.—We chose the Sweet Pea for study because it is one of the commonest of garden flowers; it blossoms in the autumn months, and from it we may learn many things that are true in general of all flowers. The study of this flower requires care and close observation. We first notice that the four parts of the flower are here also, as they were in the case of the *Nasturtium*, namely, the calyx, corolla, stamens, and pistils.

The Calyx.—This consists of five parts joined at the base, but there is no nectar tube in this flower. There will be found nectar glands within the flower, however.

The Corolla.—This at first appears to consist of four parts, but it will be seen that the lower part, or keel, is in reality two grown together. We say, therefore, that the corolla of the Sweet Pea consists of five petals. The upper larger petal is known as the standard. It folds the rest of the flower within itself in the bud, as may be seen in the half-opened flowers. On either side are the two petals known as wings.

The Stamens.—Count these and it will be seen that nine are joined by their bases into one group, and a single one stands alone below.

The Pistil.—Here may be seen within the sheath formed

by the nine stamens the small greenish body which later develops into the pod containing a row of six to ten seeds.

Bees visit the Sweet Pea to get the nectar and pollen to store up as food in their hives. ~~Pupils will notice that~~ To enter the flower the insects must land on the keel. Whenever they do this, the tips of the stamens are thrown up against the lower parts of their bodies, dusting them with pollen. Try pressing on the top of the keel and notice how this occurs. The edges of the opening in the keel also help to brush off the pollen dust on the visitors. Many times, however, the flowers of the Sweet Pea are self-pollinated without the help of insects.

Notice how the pod grows from the little body hidden in the keel of the flower to a seed case about two inches long. As soon as ripe, the two halves of the pod burst asunder and twist into a spiral form, throwing the seeds far and wide. This is Nature's way of having the seeds of this plant scattered, so as not to crowd each other when the plants spring up in the following year. ~~Pupils will find that~~ all plants have some means of making sure that their seeds will be dispersed to best advantage.

Various examples of fruit in process of developing from the pistil should be noted, such as the ripening fruit pods of pea, bean, radish, corn, etc., in each case note being made of the fact that fruit comes where the flower once was, and that pistil and stamen are two parts needed to complete the process.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

1. Examine a plant of the Sweet Pea. Why is it called an annual? What shows that the plant is suited for clinging to support? What effect has this climbing habit on the size and strength of stem?
2. Make a drawing of the leaf of the Sweet Pea, showing the tendril for climbing. Show also the leaf-like growths at the base of the leaf-stem, called stipules, which serve the same purpose as leaves.
3. What flowers that you know have much the same form as those of the Sweet Pea? In what way is there resemblance? Name the flower parts, telling which serves as a covering when the flower is in bud, which displays color and what the purpose of this is, which produces the yellow pollen and what it is for, and which later grows into a fruit or pod.
4. Locate the same parts in the case of the Nasturtium. Give the number of parts in each case. Are the numbers the same in all flowers of the same kind of plant?

5. Why do we class the Nasturtium as an annual? How is the plant grown, and for what purpose? Is any part of the plant used for food? Describe the adaptations to attract insect visitors. What insects are the friends of flowers and how do they help each other?
6. Point out the parts of the flower in other examples of wild and garden flowers. Bring to the class examples of the fruit forming on plants, foretelling the passing of the flower. Some that may be used are Shepherd's Purse, Ball Mustard, Wild Mustard, Blue-bells, Lily. Composite flowers like the Aster, Thistle, Golden-rod, Sunflower, are not suitable for this purpose as they consist of minute flowers grouped in heads, and the floral parts are hard to distinguish.
8. Nasturtium—
 - (a) (1) Make a drawing of the flower of the Nasturtium.
 - (2) Make a drawing of the separate parts and label each.
 - (3) Make a drawing of the flower as a whole.
 - (b) State the function of each of these parts—
 - (1) The Calyx.
 - (2) The Corolla.
 - (3) The Stamens.
 - (4) The Pistil.
 - (c) Name two things that attract insects to flowers.
 - (d) In what way do insects help flowers?
 - (e) What is the chief function or purpose of the flower?
 - (f) Why is the nectar tube so long?
 - (g) (1) How many of the petals have hair-like spurs?
 - (2) Of what value are these to the flower?
9. Sweet Pea (Note: Students should make careful drawings of the Sweet Pea, as in the case of the Nasturtium. Greatest care should be exercised in making the drawings and in labelling the parts. No better type of art can be found outside regular art work than Elementary Science offers.)—
 - (a) Name the four divisions of the Sweet Pea flower and state the number of parts to each division.
 - (b) Make a drawing of the flower and label its parts.
 - (c) Make separate drawings of the calyx, corolla, stamens, and pistil. Label each part.
 - (d) What names are given to the petals of the Sweet Pea?
 - (e) (1) How many stamens has the Sweet Pea?
 - (2) How are they arranged?

10. General—

- (a) Make a study of the flowers of a dozen or more flowers, garden and wild. Do you recognize the same four divisions—calyx, corolla, stamens, and pistil—in each? Do you find the parts of any two exactly the same?
- (b) Did you ever observe the flower of a potato? Of wheat? Of corn?
- (c) What is the function of the flower?
- (d) Name two things that bring insects to flowers.
- (e) In what way do insects help flowers?
- (f) Do all insects serve a useful purpose to flowers?
- (g) What insects do you know that do not help flowers?
- (h) What is the function of each of the four divisions of a flower, the calyx, corolla, stamens, and pistil?
- (i) Name the parts of—
 - (1) Stamen.
 - (2) Pistil.
- (j) What part grows into the seed?

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LITERATURE

C. S. Edwards, B.A.

GRADES VII and VIII

In this department of the "Manitoba School" it is proposed to deal somewhat fully with the Literature selections prescribed for these grades. It is recommended that for the sake of variety the study of the poetry selections be alternated with the prose. With this in view we are including in each issue study notes and exercises on several of the poetry selections, along with an instalment dealing with the prose and Supplemental Reading. In the case of the latter, since five books are to be read, it is advised that one at least be completed every two months.

The Lady of Shalott.

This poem was written by Tennyson at the age of twenty-two. It shows the beginning of his interest in the legend of Arthur and Knights of the Round Table which he later developed in "The Idylls of the King." All of this is based on a prose work of the Middle Ages, the *Morte d'Arthur* by Sir Thomas Malory. The tragic story of "The Lady of Shalott" was retold later at greater length in his Idyl "Launcelot and Elaine." A reading of the latter poem by the teacher and pupils will make many things clear that are merely hinted at in the poem before us. It will be found, however, that the connection of the "mirror" and the "web" with the story is somewhat different in the two poems.

The Story of Elaine and Launcelot.

She lived with her father and brothers on the island, a wilful, rather spoiled child to whom her father could refuse nothing. There she spent much of her time in the tower of her father's castle, where she loved to see the people come and go on the highway that led to Camelot, Arthur's capital. There was in her mind a vague fear that, somehow, harm would come to her from this, so she watched the passing crowds by reflection in a mirror, meanwhile busying herself with weaving "a magic web with colors gay," in which impressions of what she saw were shown as part of the patterns of the fabric. One day there came from the direction of Camelot, King Arthur's famous knight, Launcelot, resplendent in dazzling armor. This was the crisis in her life. She realized this when "the mirror cracked from side to side," and she looked forth from the tower and said, "The curse is come upon me."

Before commencing Part IV of the poem it is necessary

to understand that at this point much of the story has been omitted. Launcelot was hospitably received at the castle. On leaving, he, accompanied by a brother of Elaine's, attended the tournament in Camelot in disguise. Here he was wounded and was taken to a secret cave where he was placed under the care of a hermit. Here also he was tenderly nursed back to health by Elaine. His affections were set on another, however, and her love for him being disregarded, she bade her relatives place her on a boat which would bear her down the stream to Camelot. She died before reaching there. How those at Arthur's court were affected by the sight on the boat's arrival we are told in the closing stanzas.

The story is beautifully told by Malory in Book XVIII of "Morte d'Arthur."

Detailed Study of the Poem

Part I. These lines constitute the setting, and introduce the Lady of Shalott. They suggest that there is in the minds of the people of the neighborhood a feeling of mystery regarding her, as if she were a fairy. What are the details of the picture given in these stanzas? You should mention the farms, the highway, the river, the island, the towers of the castle, the barges on the river, the song of the maiden heard by moonlight or in early morning, etc.

1. Picture the scene, putting in these details.
2. How is the Lady regarded? How much is due to her noble birth?
3. Wold means hillside; aspens are poplars; a shallop is a small sailboat. Camelot is Arthur's capital. Its location may be taken as at London.

Part II. **The Web.**—This pictures the eager interest of the Lady in the people who pass on the highway, and a foreboding of evil.

1. Quote lines that show the patterns woven in the web are those suggested by what she sees.

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2. What two things mentioned in the last stanza have a suggestion of the girl's fate?

3. Quote five expressions in these stanzas that convey a picture (e.g., the red cloaks of market girls.)

4. Ambling pad means a small easy riding horse; churls are country labourers.

Part III. Sir Lancelot.—He was a famous knight of Arthur's court, secretly in love with the Queen, and therefore unlikely to be faithful to any other.

1. What shows the closeness of his approach?

2. Name the items in the description of the knight. Make a connected description using these.

3. How did she break her vow to look at things in the mirror only? What was her own expectation of the result?

4. The Galaxy is the Milky Way; baldric is a belt over the shoulder; "from the bank and from the river" has reference to his own reflection as well as that of his image in the water, both showing in the mirror.

Part IV. The Death of the Lady.—The Lady is revenged for the neglect shown by the knight by dressing herself in wedding garments and going on board the barge where he should see her in her death, as the barge floats down the river past Camelot.

A seer is a prophet; mischance means ill-fortune.

1. Describe her preparations.

2. How does nature seem to sympathize? (Stanza 1.)

3. "They heard her singing." Who heard her? (Refer to Part I.)

4. What do you think of Lancelot's comment?

5. What various feelings are called up on reading the poem?

6. What qualities combine to make this poem a favorite (the old-time background, the beauty of the landscape, the romance, the pity, the pathos, the easy flowing rhythm, etc.)

7. Memorize either Part I or II of this poem.

SIR PATRICK SPENS

Introductory Note.—This is perhaps the most famous example of the class of poetry known as the traditional ballad. It dates from some time in the Middle Ages when poems were sung or recited by minstrels, and instead of being committed to manuscript as would be the case now, were handed down from one generation to another in men's memory only. Such poems underwent much alteration as time went on, and the original author was forgotten.

Historical Basis of the Ballad.—Nothing is known in history about Sir Patrick Spens or the events of the story. It would seem, however, to relate to events in Scotland about the time when Edward I was king of England. In 1281 Margaret, the daughter of the Scottish king, was married to Eric, king of Norway. A large number of the Scottish nobles accompanied her on her voyage to her new home in Norway. On the return their ship foundered in a storm and all were drowned. This may be the incident referred to, or the origin of the ballad may relate to the fact that five years later the daughter of Margaret and Eric fell heir to the Scottish throne, and a company of Scottish nobles was sent to "bring her home." Again all perished in a storm at sea.

Summary of the Story.—The king of Scotland desiring to find a good sailor for his ship, was advised to send for Sir Patrick Spens. The latter on receiving the king's commission to bring his daughter home from Norway (or to Norway), expressed his doubts about the safety of a voyage across the North Sea in winter, but undertook the mission. In Norway the Scottish nobles outstayed their welcome. Being treated with some insolence by the lords of Norway, Spens immediately set sail for Scotland. On the return voyage they encountered storms, the ship sprang a leak, and notwithstanding all the efforts to close up the openings in the ship's sides, the boat sank and Sir Patrick and the Scottish lords were drowned.

Detailed Study of the Poem:

I. **The Summons** (Stanzas 1 to 7)—Dumfermline is a town on the Firth of Forth, ancient residence of the Scottish kings. Eldern knight is here the knight whose age made him a dependable adviser. To fetch the king's daughter home may be taken to mean take her to her new home in Norway.

1. Mention things named here that are old-time customs.

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2. Why did Sir Patrick first laugh and then weep? (Stanza 5.)

3. Memorize the first twelve lines of the poem.

II. The Journey (Stanzas 8 to 11)—The ship had a speedy voyage. After the Scots had remained a week the lords of Norway began to complain of the expense of entertaining the Scots. Sir Patrick took offence at this and ordered preparations to be made for the return voyage. Queen's fee means her dowry; white money is silver; a half-fou of good is a half-bushel of gold.

1. What shows the speed of the voyage?

2. What was the cause of the quarrel and what was said by each party in it?

III. The Return (Stanzas 12 to 20)—Alake means alack. The new moon with the auld moon in her arm is taken as the sign of a storm. Gurly means stormy; the lift is the sky; a bout is a bolt.

1. What foretold the storm?

2. Tell some of the incidents of the storm.

3. How did they try to keep out of water?

IV. The Sinking of the Ship (last six stanzas)—Shoon means shoes. Kaims are combs.

1. Quote all the lines that tell us indirectly that the ship sank.

2. What three examples are given to show the grief of those at home?

3. What are some of the pleasing qualities of this ballad? Mention the well-told story, the courage of the Captain, the interest in the fate of the crew, the fact that the people are of noble birth, etc.

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SUPPLEMENTAL OR HOME READING**Adrift on an Ice-Pan**

Adrift on an Ice-Pan is the story of a trying experience of Doctor Wilfred Grenfell an English medical missionary, descended from the famous family of Grenville, who abandoned a life of ease and distinction in his homeland, to serve the needs of the hardy, brave and suffering fishermen scattered along the inhospitable coast of Labrador.

Summoned to the bedside of a boy sixty miles distant, whose life could be saved only by immediate operation, Grenfell set out in his well-stored komatik drawn by a team of eight powerful dogs. It was late in April, when there is always the risk of breaking through the "sish", or decomposed ice. Attempting a short cut on the ice across an inlet of the sea, Grenfell and his team got into the loose sish, and soon he and his dogs were floundering in the mushy surface which intervened between them and the shore. With great difficulty he managed to get himself and his dogs on to a small pan of ice about ten by twelve feet. Half clad as he was, in clothes soaking wet, he realized that death by freezing was inevitable. To escape this fate, he killed three of his beloved dogs, skinned them, and made their skins into a crude blanket in which he wrapped himself while lying all night in the freezing atmosphere drifting about on the tiny raft of ice. When morning dawned realizing that he must devise some sort of flag, he marled together the legs of the dead dogs for a staff to which he fastened his shirt. This he waved at intervals for several hours.

Meanwhile he subdued the pangs of hunger by chewing ceaselessly a rubber band which he had been using as a garter. As if to approve his heroic endeavours, his big dog "Doc" would come to him and kiss his face whenever he sat down to rest. At last, about midday, when he was thinking of sacrificing another dog and drinking his blood to restore his ebbing strength, he suddenly thought he saw the glitter of an oar. His hopes were not deceived. After some time he made out the black streak of the hull. In another hour his rescuers were alongside the pan, five brawny fishermen in whose kindly eyes tears of joy were shining. The rest of the story is a fine tribute to the sympathy and courage and humanity of the hardy fishermen who had accomplished the rescue by supreme self-sacrifice. It is pleasant to add, in conclusion, that the brave doctor was not too late to save the sick boy to whom he was journeying when he got adrift on the ice-pan.

EXERCISES

1. (a) Explain the reason for Dr. Grenfell's journey.
(b) How did he happen to get into the bad ice?
(c) Explain what is meant by "sish" ice.

- (d) Describe the Doctor's attempt to get his sleigh out of the "sish" ice.
2. (a) After abandoning the komatik, the Doctor's next effort was to get his dogs on a piece of solid ice. Tell how he accomplished this.
(b) Why did he have to abandon this temporary raft?
3. (a) Describe the Doctor's efforts to get on a more substantial ice-pan.
(b) Describe this piece of ice on which he finally drifted about.
(c) What were his experiences on this ice-pan for the rest of the day?
4. (a) Why did the Doctor determine to kill some of his dogs?
(b) Describe this difficult operation.
(c) Explain the use he made of the skins.
(d) To what other expedients did he resort in order to improve his condition?
5. Describe the Doctor's experiences during the night.
6. (a) Explain how the Doctor made a flag.
(b) Describe his efforts to signal with this flag.
(c) How far was he from the shore at this time?
7. Describe the Doctor's experience during the second day on the pan.
8. Tell the story of the Doctor's rescue.
9. Explain how the fishermen had discovered the Doctor's plight.
10. Tell about the fishermen's heroic efforts during the night to come to the Doctor's rescue.

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